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**THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION
FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING**

**THIRD ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
PRESIDENT AND TREASURER**

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October, 1908**

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REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

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REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

To the Chairman and the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

I **BEG** to present herewith, in accordance with the provisions of the by-laws, my third annual report which relates to the operations of the Foundation during the fiscal year beginning October 1, 1907, and ending September 30, 1908.

For sake of convenience the report is divided, as shown in the *Contents*, into seven parts: the first part relates to the current business of the year; the second to financial questions in colleges; the third to tax-supported institutions; the fourth to educational progress and problems; the fifth to professional education; the sixth to denominational education; and the seventh contains short biographies of the teachers on the retired list who died during the year.

MEETINGS OF THE TRUSTEES

THE by-laws provide for an annual meeting of the trustees on the third Wednesday in November of each year. In addition to the regular meeting held on November 20, 1907, a special meeting was held on May 7, 1908. This meeting was called by the executive committee, under the provision of the by-laws, to consider the relation of the Foundation to state universities, and particularly the letter of Mr. Andrew Carnegie tendering additional endowment for the establishment of the retiring allowance system in tax-supported colleges and universities.

At the regular meeting Mr. Robert A. Franks and Mr. Frank A. Vanderlip were reelected to succeed themselves as members of the executive committee for a term of three years.

At the special meeting the trustees voted unanimously to accept the offer of Mr. Carnegie to supply five million of dollars additional endowment to be used in establishing the retiring allowance system in tax-supported colleges and universities. In accordance with this resolution the rules for admission of institutions to the accepted list were so amended as to provide for the admission of tax-supported institutions in accordance with the terms indicated in Mr. Carnegie's letter.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE YEAR

DURING the past year the following publications have been issued by the Foundation :

1. The Second Annual Report of the President and Treasurer, *124 pages.*
2. A Plan for an Exchange of Teachers between Prussia and the United States, *7 pages.*

3. The Rules for the Admission of Institutions and for the Granting of Retiring Allowances, *12 pages.*
4. The Financial Status of the Professor in America and in Germany, Bulletin Number Two, *101 pages.*

The publications of the Foundation are sent to all colleges and universities in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland, to a selected list of libraries in America and Europe, and to a representative list of professors and teachers in America and Europe. The demand for these publications has been large and, while the distribution has been a generous one, it has been found impossible to supply all the copies of the reports which have been asked for. The First Annual Report can no longer be furnished.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

THE minutes of the meetings of the executive committee held throughout the year have been printed and sent to each member of the board so that the details of the proceedings of the committee are already in the hands of the trustees. The stated meetings of the committee are held on the first Thursday of each month. During the fiscal year 1907-1908 eight meetings were held.

The personnel of the committee has remained the same as in the previous year, the two members whose terms expired with the last annual meeting having been unanimously reelected.

The action of the executive committee so far as it concerned the admission of institutions and the voting of retiring allowances is given in full in the following pages. The committee devoted considerable time to the discussion of the relations of tax-supported institutions to the retiring allowance system. This matter is also fully treated elsewhere. It was resolved that before any institution is admitted to the accepted list it should be visited by the president of the Foundation or his representative, and the president of the Foundation was authorized to take such time of the office staff and to make such expenditure as would be necessary to examine with care entrance requirements and other conditions in connection with the applications for admission of institutions.

Two special recommendations were made by the executive committee to the board of trustees and, being adopted by the board, were incorporated in the rules of the Foundation. By one of these recommendations the maximum amount of a retiring allowance was raised from \$3000 to \$4000, and by the other the executive committee was directed to grant a pension to the widow of a professor in an accepted institution who has been for ten years married to the professor, the pension to be one half of what the husband would have been entitled to receive. Heretofore the pensions to widows have been only permissive. Numerous letters from professors and the expression of educators who had visited the officers of the Foundation convinced the

trustees that no part of the retiring allowance system would be more helpful and more appreciated than pensions to widows. Such pensions were therefore raised from discretionary ones to a certain provision by the adoption of the following rule:

“Any person who has been for ten years the wife of a professor either in receipt of a pension or entitled to receive one shall receive during her widowhood one half of the allowance to which her husband was entitled.”

The committee interpreted several of the rules as applications were acted upon. It held that a widow's pension ceases upon her re-marriage. It construed the rules to mean that a retiring allowance granted to a professor not in an accepted institution, if the professor did not retire at the end of the current academic year, would need to come again before the committee for consideration.

It was resolved that a professor going from a college or university to engage in research under the Carnegie Institution of Washington did not thereby forfeit a retiring allowance and could count years so spent in research in determining his retired pay.

At each meeting of the committee a detailed statement of receipts and expenditures for the preceding month was presented by the treasurer. These statements are published in full with the minutes of the various meetings.

The committee approved the investment during the year of \$171,000 of surplus income in securities recommended by the sub-committee on finance. This sub-committee consists of Mr. Franks, Mr. Vanderlip, and the treasurer.

DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES

THE following tables give in detail the list of persons who have accepted retiring allowances during the fiscal year just closed, together with a summary showing the age, service, and average payment.

During the year seventy-eight names have been added to the retiring allowance roll at a total cost of \$118,765. Of these, thirty-nine were professors in accepted institutions and twenty-four in institutions not on the accepted list, while fifteen were widows of professors. Thirteen persons in the retired list died during the year and two temporary allowances were discontinued, so that the total addition to the list was sixty-three names.

The tables on pages 9 and 10 give information concerning the number of retiring allowances in force at the end of the fiscal year and the geographical distribution of these allowances. A comparison of the retiring allowances in force at the end of the year 1906-7 and the end of the year 1907-8 is afforded by the tables on pages 11 and 12.

RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS
OCTOBER 1, 1907, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

Institution	Name	Academic Title	Date of Retirement
AMHERST COLLEGE	EDWARD PAYSON CROWELL, D.D.	Professor of Latin	July, 1908
BATES COLLEGE	JAMES ALBERT HOWE, D.D.	Professor of Systematic Theology and Homiletics	Sept., 1908
CARLETON COLLEGE	JOHN HOLMES RAND, A.M.	Professor of Mathematics	Sept., 1907*
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE	LUCIAN W. CHANEY, M.S.	Professor of Biology and Geology	July, 1908
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY	MARGARET J. EVANS, L.H.D.	Professor of English, and Dean of Women	July, 1908
COLORADO COLLEGE	JOHN WILLIAMS LANGLEY, PH.D.	Professor of Electro-Metallurgy	Sept., 1907
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	JOHN CILLEY FALES, A.M., LL.D.	Professor of Biology and Geology	July, 1908
CORNELL UNIVERSITY	JAMES VENABLE LOGAN, D.D., LL.D.	Professor of Philosophy	July, 1908
	ALFRED BRIERLY NELSON, A.M., M.D.	Professor of Mathematics	May, 1908
	FRANK HERBERT LOUD, PH.D.	Professor of Mathematics	Nov., 1907
	JOHN BASSETT MOORE, LL.D.	Professor of International Law and Diplomacy	Feb., 1908†
	JOSEPH C. PFISTER, A.M.	Adjunct Professor of Mechanics	July, 1908†
	SIMON HENRY GAGE, B.S.	Professor of Histology and Embryology	June, 1908
	JAMES LAW, F.R.C.V.S.	Professor of Principles and Practice of Veterinary Medicine	June, 1908
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE	CHARLES HENRY HITCHCOCK, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Geology and Mineralogy	Sept., 1908
DRURY COLLEGE	WILLIAM C. CALLAND, B.A., B.D.	Secretary and Treasurer	June, 1908
FRANKLIN COLLEGE	EDWARD MARTIN SHEPARD, A.M., SC.D.	Professor of Biology and Geology	June, 1908
HARVARD UNIVERSITY	FRANCIS W. BROWN, PH.D.	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature	Sept., 1908
	REGINALD HEBER FITZ, A.M., M.D., LL.D.	Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine	Sept., 1908
	WILLIAM L. RICHARDSON, A.M., M.D.	Dean of the Medical School	Sept., 1907
	JOHN COLLINS WARREN, M.D., LL.D.	Professor of Surgery	Sept., 1907
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY	MANFIELD MERRIMAN, C.E., PH.D.	Professor of Civil Engineering	Feb., 1908
LLELAN STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY	WILLIAM RUSSELL DUDLEY, M.S.	Professor of Systematic Botany	July, 1908
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE	EZRA BRAINERD, D.D., LL.D.	President	June, 1908
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE	HENRIETTA E. HOOKER, PH.D.	Professor of Botany	June, 1908

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY.....	CYRUS FOGG BRACKETT, M.D., LL.D.	Professor of Physics.....	July, 1908
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.....	WILLIAM EARL DODGE SCOTT, B.S.....	Curator of the Museum, Department of Ornithology.....	Dec., 1907
TUFTS COLLEGE.....	JAMES E. DENTON, M.E., D.E.	Professor of Engineering Practice.....	July, 1908
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.....	CHARLES DUBLIN BRAY, A.M.	Professor of Civil and Mechanical Engineering.....	July, 1908
	STANFORD E. CHAILLÉ, M.D., LL.D.	Dean of Medical College.....	June, 1908
	JOHN B. ELLIOTT, M.D., PH.D.	Professor of the Theory and Practice of Medicine.....	June, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI.....	HENRY ALBERT MORRILL, LL.D.	Professor of Constitutional Law.....	July, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH.....	DANIEL CARHART, M.C.E., SC.D.	Dean and Professor of Civil Engineering.....	July, 1908
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER.....	JOSEPH HENRY GILMORE, PH.D.	Professor of Rhetoric and English.....	July, 1908
	SAMUEL ALLAN LATTIMORE, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Chemistry.....	July, 1908
WELLESLEY COLLEGE.....	WILLIAM HARMON NILES, M.A., LL.D.	Professor of Geology.....	July, 1908
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.....	JOHN EMBRIDGE SINCLAIR, PH.D.	Professor of Higher Mathematics.....	July, 1908
YALE UNIVERSITY.....	JOHN HENRY NIEMEYER, M.A., S.A.A.	Professor of Drawing.....	July, 1908
	TRACT PECK, LL.D.	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.....	July, 1908

WIDOWS

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Husband's Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
BATES COLLEGE.....	MRS. JOHN H. RAND.....	Professor of Mathematics.....	Dec., 1907
BOWDOIN COLLEGE.....	MRS. LESLIE A. LEE.....	Professor of Geology and Biology.....	June, 1908
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. EDWARD MACDOWELL.....	Professor of Music.....	Mar., 1908
	MRS. LUCIEN M. UNDERWOOD.....	Professor of Botany.....	Dec., 1907
HARVARD UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. MINTON WARREN.....	Professor of Latin.....	Dec., 1907
McGILL UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. BERNARD J. HARRINGTON.....	Professor of Chemistry.....	Dec., 1907
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.....	MRS. JOHN R. FICKLEN.....	Professor of History and Political Science.....	Oct., 1908
YALE UNIVERSITY.....	MRS. EDWARD G. BOURNE.....	Professor of History.....	Apr., 1908
	MRS. THOMAS D. SEYMOUR.....	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature.....	May, 1908

* Deceased.

† Disability allowance granted for limited time.

RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

OCTOBER 1, 1907, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

Institution	Name	Academic Title	Date of Retirement
ADELPHI COLLEGE, Brooklyn, N. Y.	LOUISE BOTH-HENDRIKSEN	Assistant Professor of History	June, 1908
ALFRED UNIVERSITY, Alfred, N. Y.	EDWARD M. TOMLINSON, M.A., Litt.D., LL.D.	Professor of Greek and Librarian	July, 1908
BEAVER COLLEGE, Beaver, Pa.	GIUSEPPE FERRATA, Mus.D.	Director of Music	June, 1908*
BETHANY COLLEGE, Bethany, W. Va.	A. C. PENDLETON, A.M.	Professor of Modern Languages	July, 1908
COOPER UNION, New York, N. Y.	R. H. WYNE, A.M.	Professor of Hebrew and History	July, 1908
COUNCIL OF HIGHER EDUCATION, St. John's, N. F.	WILLIAM A. ANTHONY, A.M., Ph.D.	Professor of Physics and Director of Laboratory †	
HOWARD UNIVERSITY, Washington, D. C.	WILLIAM PILOT, D.D., D.C.L.	President	Mar., 1908
LE MOYNE INSTITUTE, Memphis, Tenn.	CHARLES B. PURVIS, A.M., M.D.	Professor of Obstetrics and Gynecology	Mar., 1908
LOMBARD COLLEGE, Galesburg, Ill.	ANDREW J. STEELE, A.M.	Principal	Aug., 1908
MIAMI UNIVERSITY, Oxford, O.	ISAAC AUGUSTUS PARKER, A.M., Ph.D.	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature	Oct., 1907
NORTH CAROLINA COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS, West Raleigh, N. C.	ANDREW DOUGLAS HEFFURN, LL.D.	Professor of English, Vice-President and Dean	July, 1908
OLIVET COLLEGE, Olivet, Mich.	GEORGE TAYLOR WINSTON, B.Litt., A.M., LL.D.	President	July, 1908
PURDUE UNIVERSITY, Lafayette, Ind.	WALTER E. C. WRIGHT, D.D.	Professor of Social Science and Christian Ethics	Feb., 1908†
ROLLINS COLLEGE, Winter Park, Fla.	CHARLES PHILO MATTHEWS, M.E., Ph.D.	Professor of Electrical Engineering	Oct., 1907*†
	FRANCIS ELLEN LORD	Professor of Latin	June, 1908

SCHOOL OF ART, St. John's, N. F.	JOSEPH WILLIAM NICHOLS.....	Professor of Art.....	July, 1906
SOUTH CAROLINA MILITARY ACADEMY, Charleston, S. C.	ASBURY COWARD, LL.D.	Superintendent and Professor of Moral and Political Science.....	Oct., 1906
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA, Iowa City, Ia.	CHARLES SCOTT MAGOWAN, C.E.	Professor of Municipal and Sanitary Engineering.....	Oct., 1907*†
TALLADEGA COLLEGE, Talladega, Ala.	GEORGE WHITFIELD ANDREWS, D.D.	Professor.....	Oct., 1906
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI, Columbia, Mo.	RICHARD HENRY JESSE, LL.D.	President.....	July, 1906
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA, Columbia, S. C.	EDWARD S. JOYNER, M.A., LL.D.	Professor of Modern Languages.....	Sept., 1906
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE, Knoxville, Tenn.	BENJAMIN SLOAN, LL.D.	President.....	June, 1906
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA, Charlottesville, Virginia	THOMAS WALDEN JORDAN, A.M., LL.D.	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.....	Oct., 1907*
	JOHN WILLIAM MAILLET, PH.D., M.D., LL.D., F.R.S.	Professor of Chemistry.....	June, 1906

WIDOWS

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Husband's Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
BUCHTEL COLLEGE, Akron, O.	MRS. CARL F. KOLBE.....	Professor of Modern Languages.....	May, 1906
COOPER UNION, New York, N. Y.	MRS. WILLIAM A. ANTHONY.....	Professor of Physics and Director of the Laboratories Director and Professor of Civil Engineering.....	July, 1906
GROVE CITY COLLEGE, Grove City, Pa.	MRS. GEORGE W. PLYMPTON.....	Professor of Greek.....	Dec., 1907
HILLSDALE COLLEGE, Hillsdale, Mich.	MRS. JAMES B. McCLELLAND.....	Professor of Greek.....	Oct., 1907
WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, Middletown, Conn.	MRS. KINGSBURY BACHELDER.....	Professor of Greek.....	Dec., 1907
	MRS. WILBUR O. ATWATER.....	Professor of Chemistry.....	Dec., 1907

* Disability allowance granted for limited time.

† Deceased.

SUMMARY OF DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED DURING THE FISCAL YEAR

OCTOBER 1, 1907, TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

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	Number of Retiring Allowances Granted			Average Age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Number Deceased during the Year	Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT FOR THE YEAR		
	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability	Total number of allowances granted	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service		Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service		Of those retiring on basis of disability	
BENEFICIARIES																
PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	18	17	4	39	69	64.6	49.3	34.4	38.3	17.5	6	\$1,566 67	\$1614 71	\$2400	\$ 65,250	
PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS ...	11	9	4	24	70.8	64	47.5	34.4	36.4	20.8	5	1357 27	1637 78	1400	35,760	
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				9									963 89			8,675
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				6									680			4,080
TOTAL FOR THE YEAR	29	26	8	78							13		GENERAL AVERAGE OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES	\$1603 33	\$113,765	

DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES IN FORCE

SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

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	Number of Retiring Allowances in Force			Average age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT IN FORCE SEPT. 30 1908	
	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability	Total number of allowances in force	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service		Of those retiring on basis of disability
BENEFICIARIES														
PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	60	48	10	116	70	66.7	60.4	32.5	37.2	18.3	\$1,499 33	\$1,739 45	\$1,695	\$185,465
PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	26	35	5	66	70.5	70.7	52	31.9	41	23.8	1,927 88	1,558 99	1,400	93,465
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				19								938 16		17,925
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				10								675		6,750
TOTAL, SEPTEMBER 30, 1908	86	83	15	211										\$203,505
														GENERAL AVERAGE OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES \$1,532 58

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES

STATE, TERRITORY, OR PROVINCE	Number of Allowances Granted			Number of beneficiaries deceased	Number of temporary allowances discontinued	Number of allowances in force
	In institutions on the accepted list	In institutions not on the accepted list	Total number of allowances granted			
NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION						
MAINE.....	5	1	6	1		5
NEW HAMPSHIRE.....	2		2			2
VERMONT.....	2		2			2
MASSACHUSETTS.....	26	1	27	2		25
RHODE ISLAND.....		1	1			1
CONNECTICUT.....	14	2	16	1		15
NEW YORK.....	34	6	40	8		32
NEW JERSEY.....	10		10	1		9
PENNSYLVANIA.....	9	7	16	3		13
<i>Total</i>			120			
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION						
MARYLAND.....	1		1			1
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.....		4	4	1		3
VIRGINIA.....	1	8	9	2		7
WEST VIRGINIA.....		2	2			2
NORTH CAROLINA.....		3	3			3
SOUTH CAROLINA.....		6	6	1		5
GEORGIA.....		2	2			2
FLORIDA.....		1	1			1
<i>Total</i>			28			
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION						
KENTUCKY.....	3	2	5	1		4
TENNESSEE.....		5	5			5
ALABAMA.....		3	3			3
LOUISIANA.....	8		8			8
<i>Total</i>			21			
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION						
OHIO.....	9	9	18	2		16
INDIANA.....	1	4	5	1		4
ILLINOIS.....	1	3	4	1		3
MICHIGAN.....		3	3	2		1
WISCONSIN.....	5		5			5
MINNESOTA.....	4	1	5			5
IOWA.....	1	8	9	1	1	7
MISSOURI.....	4	4	8			8
NORTH DAKOTA.....		2	2	1		1
NEBRASKA.....		1	1			1
<i>Total</i>			60			
WESTERN DIVISION						
COLORADO.....	1		1			1
CALIFORNIA.....	3	1	4	1	1	2
OREGON.....		2	2			2
<i>Total</i>			7			
THE DOMINION OF CANADA						
QUEBEC.....	2		2			2
NOVA SCOTIA.....	1		1			1
NEW BRUNSWICK.....		3	3	1		2
<i>Total</i>			6			
NEWFOUNDLAND						
		2	2			2
<i>Total</i>			2			
Total	147	97	244	31	2	211

COMPARISON BETWEEN GRANTS OF LAST TWO YEARS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

YEAR	Number of Retiring Allowances Granted				Decased during the year	Average Age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT IN FORCE AT THE END OF THE YEAR
	Number of Institutions	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability		Total number of allowances in force	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring tempo- rarily on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	
1906-7	55	24	14	3	40	69.2	63	55	32.6	33.9	19.5	\$1531 04	\$1745 71	\$1970	\$63,725
1907-8	63	16	17	4	39	69	64.6	49.3	34.4	38.3	20.8	1566 07	1614 71	2400	65,250

COMPARISON OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES IN FORCE DURING LAST TWO
www.libtool.com.cn FISCAL YEARS

<i>Year</i>	<i>Annual Grant in Accepted Institutions</i>	<i>Annual Grant to Individuals</i>	<i>Total Number of Persons on the Roll</i>	<i>Total Grant</i>
1906-7	\$124,990	\$ 77,155	148	\$202,145
1907-8	203,290	100,215	211	303,505
Increase	78,300	23,060	63	101,360

INSTITUTIONS ADMITTED TO THE ACCEPTED LIST
 DURING THE PAST YEAR

DURING the fiscal year ending September 30, 1908, seven institutions, Bowdoin College, the Central University of Kentucky, Drake University, Drury College, Franklin College, Rose Polytechnic Institute, and the University of Cincinnati, were admitted to the privileges of the retiring allowance system. Some account of the history of these institutions and of the circumstances leading to their admission to the accepted list is given below.

BOWDOIN COLLEGE

In the eighteenth century the journey between Boston and the three counties of Massachusetts known as the District of Maine was a difficult and expensive task. His trip from Portland cost the Harvard student more than he paid for a term's tuition to the treasurer of the college. As the people of the three counties were poor, such an expense, equivalent to sending a boy to-day from the Rocky Mountains to Boston, prohibited a higher education to all save the children of a few wealthy families.

A considerable proportion of the one hundred thousand inhabitants which the census of 1790 gave to the district were emigrants from those more populous portions of the commonwealth where educational advantages had long been enjoyed. Many of the ministers and lawyers were Harvard graduates. The people therefore were eager to give their sons a college training, and as college residence on the Charles was more impractical for the generality than would be a university in New England to-day for the people of Colorado, it became necessary to found a college within the district itself. As early as 1787 one of the representatives from Lincoln County introduced a bill to this effect into the General Court. By 1791 the upper house had recorded itself in favor of such action. But the rivalry between a number of towns, each eager to become the home of the future college, delayed the legislative progress of the charter, until on the twenty-fourth of June, 1794, Governor Samuel Adams signed the bill incorporating a college to be located at Brunswick, in the county of Cumberland, to be known as Bowdoin College.

Brunswick was chosen as a compromise. Portland had selected a site on the top of a suburban hill; various towns along the Kennebec had offered advantageous local plots of ground. The legislature, upon the advice of the majority of the representatives from the district, ended the rivalry by placing the college midway between Portland and the river. The name was more spontaneously chosen. In the first bill introduced the proposed institution was called Winthrop College. The names of other Massachusetts statesmen were at various times proposed, but the death in 1790 of Governor Bowdoin spread sorrow throughout the commonwealth, and caused the friends of the new college to unite in favor of "Bowdoin" as a deserved honor to a firm patriot and as a name calculated to win popularity for any institution thus called.

A hundred years before, upon the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, Pierre Baudouin, a gentleman of Angoumois, had given up his pleasant estate in the valley of the Sèvre to build a hut amid the forests which surrounded Casco Bay. When the French and Indian war almost extinguished the English settlements along the northeast coast, the Huguenot fled with his family to Boston. His son James became a merchant of that city, and left at his death in 1747 the largest individual fortune in the northern colonies. With him the family name assumed the English form of Bowdoin.

His son, the second James Bowdoin (Harvard 1745), was one of the great men of the revolution. Franklin considered himself aided in his discovery of electricity by the scientific assistance of his younger friend. He helped to reestablish the library of Harvard College after the fire of 1764, and served as one of the six fellows. In 1758 he was elected to the Massachusetts legislature, where he sat until, in 1774, King George III gave personal orders to General Gage to veto Mr. Bowdoin's reelection. The honor of such notice from His Majesty was due to Bowdoin's having been the principal author of the state papers in which the colony set forth its case against the British ministry. His splendid private fortune and high social position were also thrown unreservedly against the king.

When the crisis came, Bowdoin was made president of the provincial council, the supreme authority in Massachusetts after the collapse of the royal authority. He presided over the convention that framed the state constitution, and in 1785 he was elected governor. His governorship is memorable for the resolute beating down of Shays' rebellion before that serious menace had time to spread. An accident alone kept from Bowdoin lasting fame. He headed the Massachusetts delegation to the First Continental Congress, and had not illness prevented him from serving, his name would probably have occupied the place on the Declaration of Independence now held by his substitute, John Hancock.

Governor Bowdoin's son, the third James Bowdoin, successively Minister to Spain and to France, was the earliest patron of the college named for his father. At the first meeting of the trustees in 1794, he offered one thousand dollars and a thousand acres of land in Bowdoinham; in 1795 he made a gift of three thousand dollars; shortly before his death he transferred to the college a six thousand acre tract in the township

of Lisbon, and by his will, operative upon his death in 1811, his library of two thousand volumes, a picture gallery then considered to be the finest in the country, and a collection of drawings containing specimens by Titian, Domenichino, Claude Lorraine, and Rembrandt. The college also received by the will some curious contingent remainders, one of which it sold for two thousand dollars in 1821, and another it compromised for thirty-one thousand dollars about 1845.

The friendly interest of the Bowdoin family was needed, and the value of the original gift of James Bowdoin can hardly be overestimated because the college was but slenderly endowed. The legislature had granted five townships, but the demand for wild land was small, and it was not until 1798 that work was begun upon a "House for the use of the college." The treasurer, however, could not secure the money to finish this building for several years. But in 1801 two of the college townships were sold for twenty-eight thousand dollars, and by the spring of 1802 the "House," now known as Massachusetts Hall, was completed, being finished, the college records say, "after the finishing of Hollis Hall in Cambridge."

The bicameral government of the college, consisting of a small board of trustees and a large board of overseers, was modeled after the government of Harvard College, and the first president, the Reverend Joseph McKeen (Dartmouth, 1774), adopted the same entrance requirements that prevailed at Harvard. This was considered a very bold course, as it placed the young college in this respect in advance of others older and wealthier. The standard would not be thought a very high one in our days, for of the eight students who matriculated upon the inauguration of President McKeen and the other member of the faculty in September, 1802, only two had attained to the age of sixteen. Mr. James Bowdoin's death, in 1811, gave the college possession of a collection of minerals, models in crystallography, and other scientific apparatus, valued in all at twelve hundred dollars; several gentlemen of Salem had presented an air-pump costing three hundred dollars; and when to this equipment was added a telescope valued at five hundred dollars, Bowdoin was able to claim that during the first quarter of the nineteenth century only Harvard surpassed it in equipment for scientific study. The third professorship in the college, established in 1805, was that of mathematics and natural philosophy, and its occupant for nearly half a century, Parker Cleaveland (Harvard, 1799), a teacher of such repute that the large universities repeatedly endeavored to attract him, made the name of the new Maine college known even in Europe by publishing a treatise on geology which Von Humboldt and Goethe united to praise.

By September, 1806, a class had been carried through to its graduation, and the first commencement of Bowdoin was held. It was a notable social event for the District of Maine, visitors coming from Boston in their carriages to attend the festivities. Seven young men were graduated, and fourteen recent Harvard, Yale, and Dartmouth graduates, who resided in Maine and desired to become associated with the new college, received degrees *ad eundem*. In 1806 the college received a welcome ad-

dition to its small resources in a grant from the General Court of a township which sold for ~~eleven thousand dollars~~. The boards thereupon erected a dormitory, so conspicuous a feature of the college that for ten years it did not seem necessary to give it a distinctive name. The charge for a room was five dollars a year. In 1814 the General Court passed an act "for the encouragement of literature, piety, morality, and the liberal arts and sciences," appropriating from a tax on banking institutions a grant for ten thousand dollars annually to Harvard, and to Williams and Bowdoin each three thousand dollars a year.

That this grant should continue to be paid to Bowdoin was a clause in the Act of Separation by which Massachusetts consented to the admission of Maine into the Union as a state by itself. The first years of the new state were years of rapid growth for its college. The legislature extended for seven years the Massachusetts grant. A medical school was established; the entrance requirements were frequently raised. At the commencement of 1821 the governor of the new state attended with his staff and an escort of cavalry and accompanied by many prominent citizens. The boards endeavored to make this first college commencement of the state of Maine memorable by authorizing the erection of a new hall and rejoicing over the entrance of the largest class that the college had yet known. They could not foresee that this class would become probably the most famous class ever graduated from an American institution of learning.

By 1837 Bowdoin had an endowment of one hundred thousand dollars, and its graduates, becoming prominent in the affairs of the state and at Washington, spread abroad its reputation. The faculty, now much increased in numbers, likewise enhanced the prestige of the college, for the first professor of rhetoric published a text-book which ran through sixty editions, and the first professor of modern languages was Henry Wadsworth Longfellow. The panic of 1837, however, seriously affected the college. For several years the income from the endowment almost failed, causing a succession of annual deficits, and the endowment itself, largely invested in bank stocks, was grievously impaired. In 1841, therefore, the trustees appealed for contributions to the college "in its present precarious condition," and in response received seventy thousand dollars. Most of this came from the members of the Congregational churches, and a portion was used in endowing the Collins professorship of natural and revealed religion, the occupant of which "shall at all times be selected from ministers or ordained clergymen in regular standing of the Trinitarian Congregational denomination of Christians." The first Collins professor was the Reverend Calvin E. Stowe (Bowdoin '24), afterwards a distinguished professor in the Andover Theological Seminary, and the husband of the author of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*.

A proud feature of Bowdoin's history is the long roll of her distinguished alumni. No other college or university in the United States has a more illustrious list of sons. The roll of governors, senators, judges, and college dignitaries is too long for enumeration, and comprises such men as John P. Hale and Thomas B. Reed, President

Franklin Pierce and the present Chief Justice of the United States. Not many years ago all of the three bodies which together govern the Union (the Senate, the House of Representatives, and the Supreme Court) were presided over simultaneously by Bowdoin graduates. But the fame of the college is not confined to statesmanship or jurisprudence. Longfellow was a graduate and a professor, and Bowdoin will be known as long as English letters are read, for it gave an education to Nathaniel Hawthorne.

The correspondence between Bowdoin College and the Carnegie Foundation opened on October 9, 1905, when the committee having in charge the gathering of information for the first meeting of the Foundation's trustees addressed a letter to Bowdoin, as it did to other institutions of high rank, asking if "your institution receives any aid from the state, or if there is any requirement that a majority of the trustees, governing body, faculty, or students must belong to any religious denomination." On October 11 President Hyde of Bowdoin replied: "I am happy to say that Bowdoin College receives no aid from the state . . . and it has no official connection with any religious denomination, and has no requirement that a majority or any number of the trustees, governing body, faculty or students must belong to any religious organization." When the Foundation was formally organized, therefore, Bowdoin College was placed upon the list of institutions apparently eligible, and on May 14, 1906, the president of the Foundation wrote to the presidents of these institutions that the Foundation desired to announce the list of accepted colleges and universities in June, and invited their attention to the resolution which their boards of trustees were asked to pass, that "no denominational test is imposed in the choice of officers or teachers, nor in the admission of students; nor are any denominational tenets or doctrines taught to students."

In reply the Foundation received a letter from a special committee of the trustees and overseers of Bowdoin College, saying that the proposed resolution ought not to be passed without an explanation. In addition to the Collins professorship, always to be held by a clergyman of the "Trinitarian Orthodox Congregational denomination of Christians," the Stone professorship, with an endowment of fifty thousand dollars, was accepted under a deed of gift worded as follows: "But this sum shall be paid only upon this condition, *viz.*, that the president of the college and a majority of its board of trustees and also of its board of overseers, as well as the incumbent of the Stone professorship, shall always be in doctrinal and religious sympathy with the Orthodox Congregational Churches of New England, and if at any time this condition is disregarded, the endowment of the Stone professorship shall be forfeited by the college and sent to the Theological Department of the Phillips Academy in Andover, Massachusetts." The committee therefore asked if the rules of the Foundation required the adoption of the resolution of the executive committee "in precisely its present form," and deputed one of the trustees, General Thomas H. Hubbard, to present the communication, and to make a more extended explanation in person. On June 26-27 the boards adopted the following resolution: "Excepting

only the conditions attached to the Stone professorship and the Collins professorship of which the Carnegie Foundation has been advised by a communication from a committee of the boards addressed to President Henry S. Pritchett, under date May 31, 1906, the following resolution is literally true and is hereby adopted by the Boards of Bowdoin College, to wit: Resolved, that no denominational test is imposed in the choice of trustees, officers or teachers, or in the admission of students, nor are distinctly denominational tenets or doctrines taught to students."

This resolution was forwarded by President Hyde with a letter in which he expressed "the earnest hope that this will be satisfactory to your trustees, and enable them to place us on the list of institutions to receive retiring allowances." On July 2 the president of the Foundation replied that the executive committee considered that the status of a college was the same whether the obligation to maintain a specified denominational majority on its board of trustees was created by the college charter or by a formal legal agreement with donors. Therefore the committee felt "that it would be necessary for Bowdoin to obtain a release from the conditions attached to the two gifts referred to before it could be considered eligible to the benefits of the Foundation."

On October 26 President Hyde wrote that the opinion of eminent jurists was that inasmuch as the Collins fund had never been adequate to maintain a professor, the college was justified in administering it *cy pres* without electing a professor, and devoting the income to the support of the chapel and other religious purposes. In regard to the Stone professorship President Hyde said that the trustees of Phillips Academy had given an assurance that they would not regard the passage by the Bowdoin boards of the undenominational resolution required by the Foundation as warranting the claiming of the Stone fund from Bowdoin, provided that by passing such a resolution Bowdoin would be accepted by the Foundation. The Andover trustees wished an assurance from the Foundation to this effect beforehand. "In other words, they will pass their resolution releasing us, provided they can have the assurance that the release by them, together with the adoption of the resolution by us, will lead the Carnegie Foundation to admit us to its benefits. Unless they can have such an assurance they do not wish to release us." President Hyde therefore said: "We now believe that . . . we shall be able to pass the resolution you require without qualification. Before calling a meeting of our boards to do this, however, we desire to get the release from Andover, and before we can get that we need assurance from your board that if we pass the resolution you require we shall be admitted to the benefits of the Carnegie Foundation." President Hyde also informed the Foundation that the Winckley professorship was given to the college on the condition that "the college adhere to the teachings of the Orthodox Congregational or Presbyterian Church;" but he added, "The condition, however, is stated in such general terms that it does not seem to us inconsistent with our adoption of the resolution you require."

To this letter the president of the Foundation replied: "The executive committee

... does not feel itself ready to agree in advance to an admission of Bowdoin College in order to carry out the arrangement which is contemplated. The committee feels that, on the other hand, Bowdoin should come to us with the situation clear before asking admission. . . . The committee did not feel itself competent to judge how much the phrase 'adhere to the teachings of the Orthodox Congregational or Presbyterian Church' might mean, but in a general way the view of the committee was that all these matters should be fairly out of the way by the action of Bowdoin before the question of its admission should be raised."

There thereupon ensued for nearly a year and a half a correspondence between Bowdoin College and the Foundation concerning these various funds and the status of the college concerning them. A release to the college from the sole heir of the donor of the Winckley professorship soon eliminated that fund from the discussion. On June 25, 1907, the boards of Bowdoin College authorized the president to file a bill in equity for the administration of the fund for the Collins professorship *cy pres*. This disposed of any uncertainty as to that fund, as the college would ask the court so to remodel its application as to conform to the principles of the Foundation. There remained, therefore, the Stone professorship of fifty thousand dollars given on condition that the president and a majority of both college boards should "always be in doctrinal and religious sympathy with the Orthodox Congregational Churches of New England," the money to be turned over to the Andover Theological Seminary if in the election of the president or a majority of either board this condition was disregarded.

The position of Bowdoin College is set forth in a letter from General Hubbard of June 15, 1907. "The condition applies to the Stone professorship and nothing else. It could not be contended that a gift of \$50,000 should control the administration of all the departments of instruction and affect the administration of all the property of the college. In other words, the condition was not that a denominational test should be imposed, for all time, in the choice of all trustees and overseers, or in the choice of a president, but that, if the doctrinal and religious sympathy of the officers mentioned should change, the endowment of the Stone professorship should be forfeited. The conditions are framed with this penalty distinctly in view. . . . Some progress has been made towards a release from this condition without a forfeiture of the fund. I think I may take it for granted that your Foundation does not wish the college to throw away any money. It cannot afford to do this. On the other hand, it must honestly take such burden, or risk, as may attach to the adoption of the resolution your rules prescribe." President Hyde thus summarizes this position in his annual report of May, 1908:* "The fund belonged to Bowdoin College until the condition was actually violated; and it was not forfeited by the adoption of a principle which might at any time lead to its violation."

With regard to this situation the executive committee of the Foundation took

* *Bowdoin College Bulletin*, Administrative Number, Number 17, page 84 (May, 1908).

the following attitude. It appreciated the fact that the college became undenominational the moment the governing boards determined that henceforth the president, trustees, and overseers should be chosen without regard to their denominational affiliations. This determination was formally evidenced by the passage of the usual resolution. But as the president and a majority of the boards were Congregationalists and might long remain so, the college would, while this status continued, be legally entitled to retain the Stone fund. It was perfectly plain, however, that Mrs. Stone had given the fifty thousand dollars, not to a college which might happen by accident to be governed by a majority of Congregationalist trustees, but to a college whose policy it was to maintain a majority of Congregationalist trustees. By accepting the fifty thousand dollars the college announced that it had such a policy. When the college determined to maintain this policy no longer, it ought to conform to Mrs. Stone's expressed desire and hand over the fifty thousand dollars to the remainder-man.

Further the Foundation could not subscribe to the view that the conditions of the Stone fund were a matter of the internal economy of Bowdoin College, or of arrangement between Bowdoin and the Andover Seminary, and that the Foundation must accept the resolution of the boards as decisive of the undenominational status of Bowdoin. That resolution was, to the Foundation, absolute evidence that hereafter no question of religious belief or affiliation would be considered in the selection of any officer of Bowdoin. But the Foundation was compelled by its own precedents, at least, to incline, as President Hyde phrases it in his report, "to the popular rather than the legal view of the case." Popular opinion, which, as President Hyde says again in his *Annual Report*, does not draw "distinctions even so obvious" as "the distinction between actual violation of a condition and the adoption of a principle which might at any time lead to a violation," would undoubtedly continue to regard Bowdoin College as practically committed to a denominational government, so long as the election of a majority of trustees not Congregationalists would result in the transfer of fifty thousand dollars of endowment to Andover Seminary. This situation did not seem to the executive committee of the Foundation a good one, and in this view the equities of the case required that the Bowdoin authorities should turn over the Stone bequest to Andover whenever the policy adopted by the trustees of Bowdoin involved the abandonment of the policy upon which the gift had been accepted. The authorities of the college were informed of this conclusion on the part of the executive committee.

The Bowdoin boards at a special meeting held on January 20, 1908, tendered to the trustees of Andover Theological Seminary the bequest of Mrs. Stone amounting with its accumulations to \$56,118.16, and the sum was later accepted by the trustees of the Andover Seminary.

Bowdoin College was thereupon, on February 6, admitted to the accepted list of the Foundation and this relation was accepted by the governing boards of the college.

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DRAKE UNIVERSITY

In 1880 President George T. Carpenter of Oskaloosa College purposed that the college should move from its home in Oskaloosa, Iowa, to Des Moines, the capital of the state and one of its largest cities. Des Moines is near the geographical centre of the state and is a centre of railroad transportation. It is thus easily accessible to all citizens of Iowa, and on account of its political and commercial prominence in the state seemed peculiarly fitted to be the home of a strong college. The plan to remove Oskaloosa College failed, and Dr. Carpenter devoted himself to the establishment at Des Moines of a new educational institution.

In this attempt Dr. Carpenter received assistance from many citizens of Des Moines and from the membership of the Church of the Disciples of Christ in Iowa and throughout the central west. A substantial gift from General Francis Marion Drake, afterwards Governor of Iowa, enabled gifts of others to be utilized, and in September, 1881, the institution was opened under a charter from the state as Drake University. General Drake was president of the board of trustees and Dr. Carpenter was president of the college of liberal arts.

All but one of the faculty of Oskaloosa College accompanied Dr. Carpenter to Drake University, and in the first year of its existence the university became affiliated with a law school that had been founded at Des Moines in 1875. In 1902 this law school was purchased by the university. In 1887 the Iowa College of Physicians and Surgeons was affiliated with Drake University and in 1900 this college was likewise purchased by the university. In the meantime the campus had been enlarged, several buildings had been erected, new departments had been organized, and the institution had been steadily growing in resources and in the number of its students. In 1907 it had an endowment of \$288,000, and the total enrolment in the college of liberal arts numbered 515.

For a number of years after its foundation Drake University had received constant support from the churches of the Disciples of Christ, and in recognition of this fact its charter provided that two thirds of the board of trustees should be elected by the Iowa Christian Missionary Convention, and also that two thirds of the trustees must be members of churches of the Disciples of Christ. But lately the citizens of Des Moines, of all religious bodies, had begun to take a strong interest in the university, and it was the desire of the city to make the university a thoroughly representative institution. Therefore, in June, 1905, with the cordial assent of the membership of the churches of the Disciples, the charter of the university was amended, eliminating any requirement as to the trustees' religious beliefs, and providing that only twelve trustees—one fourth of the board—should be elected by the Iowa Christian Missionary Convention. The government of the university was thus organized when the board of trustees made application to be admitted to the list of accepted institutions of the Carnegie Foundation.

The executive committee, however, did not see its way clear to admit an institution even when the trustees elected by a denominational body were only a minority, and the university authorities realizing that a governing board consisting of forty-eight members is a somewhat unwieldy body, on June 12, 1907, the charter was further amended, providing that the board of trustees should consist, with the exception at present of some surviving life trustees, of twenty-five members, all to be elected by the board itself. The board of trustees at the same time passed a resolution certifying that in the choice of trustees, officers, and teachers no denominational test will be imposed.

The officers of the Foundation, during the summer of 1907, pointed out to the authorities of Drake University certain statements in the university catalogue which might be taken to mean that a student could be admitted to the freshman class upon presenting twelve units of entrance requirements, and also that the academy course might be completed in three years. President Bell, in reply, stated that these expressions applied to conditions that had been changed, and that they had remained in the catalogue through inadvertence. At the same time he submitted data to the Foundation showing that the university required the requisite fourteen units for admission, and that the academy course was of four years' length. The form of government of the university and its academic standing thus meeting the requirements of the Foundation, the president of the Foundation, in January, 1908, made a visit to it. His report being favorable, Drake University was, on February 6, 1908, admitted to full participation in the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation. This action was formally accepted by the board of trustees of the university.

THE CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY

The Central University of Kentucky is the result of the union in 1901 of Centre College at Danville and Central University at Richmond. The proceedings of 1901 might be described with more accuracy as a reunion, for the separate colleges at Danville and at Richmond were the result of the division of the Presbyterian Church in Kentucky into two conflicting synods, and the unification of the colleges into one establishment was simply a return to the original plan of the undivided church when Centre College was founded.

The Centre College of Kentucky was incorporated by the legislature of the state in 1819. Although planned principally by Presbyterians, and with most of the trustees members of the Presbyterian Church or in sympathy with it, the only reference in the charter to religious control or affiliation was a clause, "no religious doctrines peculiar to any one sect of Christians should be inculcated by any professor in said college." Hopes were indeed expressed that the institution might develop into the state university. The state, however, did not provide the necessary financial assistance, and the college having fallen into debt, the Presbyterian Church offered to raise for the institution a permanent endowment provided that the election of trus-

tees should be entirely within the control of the church. A prolonged struggle ensued in the legislature. The echoes of the French Revolution still resounded west of the Alleghenies, and this proposal was strongly resisted by the large body of citizens who considered it dangerous for a democracy to entrust corporate powers to any ecclesiastical organization. The Presbyterians of the state were equally determined to found a college which should be in the control of their church. To appreciate the strength of this sentiment one must recall the early history of education in Kentucky.

Formal education began in this region when in 1780 the legislature of Virginia granted a charter and ten thousand acres of land to a school to be established in the province of Kentucky. In pursuance of this act Transylvania Academy was opened at Danville in 1785, and given a permanent location at Lexington a few years later. Those mainly instrumental in securing the Virginia charter and most of the first trustees were Presbyterians. The home of the academy at Danville was the Presbyterian parsonage, and the teacher, both at Danville and at Lexington, was a Presbyterian minister. When therefore, in 1794, this teacher was ejected and a man of different faith installed, the Presbytery of Transylvania felt that it had been treated unjustly, and immediately, through contributions of money from churches in Kentucky and the east, established an institution of its own at Pisgah under the name of Kentucky Seminary. The new community was not yet able to support two educational establishments, however, and the authorities of the original academy at Lexington soon made overtures for a consolidation, offering to the Presbyterians a majority of the trusteeships in the merged board. This offer was accepted by those governing Kentucky Seminary, and in 1798 the academies were united into the Transylvania University, with Presbyterian control of the board of trustees. In about twenty years history again seems to have repeated itself, for the Presbyterians, having gradually reduced their trustees until but seven of the twenty-one seats were held by members of their church, were entirely deprived of representation in the university board by an act of the legislature in 1817, and a president was installed whose religious opinions were "most repugnant to Presbyterianism." It was then that the Presbyterians of Kentucky solicited a charter for Centre College, to renew in Danville the first educational foundation made in the state. The legislature chartered Centre College, but not in the manner the Presbyterian Church desired, and so, in this subsequent legislature, the founders of the college renewed the appeal for an institution under Presbyterian control, offering to release the college from its financial distress if their request should be granted.

The struggle in the legislature ended in the amendment of the charter, whereby, in return for twenty thousand dollars, the selection of the trustees of the college was to be made by the synod of Kentucky. The twenty thousand dollars were raised by 1830; the control of the college passed into the hands of the synod; a man of large ability was chosen as president in the person of the Reverend John Clarke Young, and Centre College soon began to send forth graduates who have forever identified

the college with the history of Kentucky. For thirty years Centre College steadily added to its endowment and equipment, training within its walls a constantly increasing number of the choicest youth of the state.

Then came the civil war, with Kentucky as a continual scene of forays and hostile marchings. The class-rooms were practically deserted, the students rushing away almost in a body to join either the Union or the Confederate army. Like Kentucky itself, the college was divided in its allegiance. The most distinguished alumnus of the institution, who had recently been Vice-President of the United States and a candidate of his party for the White House, gave up a seat in the federal senate to lead an army of the Confederacy, while on the other hand such powerful influence as that of the Crittenden family was thrown on the side of the Union. The college, however, was able to ride the storm of war, although its buildings were repeatedly occupied as a camp first by one and then by the other army, and as soon as hostilities had ceased it began to gather up its disorganized energies, and start afresh upon its educational work. But a war leaves controversies which cannot be immediately smoothed by the official proclamation of peace. There was no longer one synod of the Presbyterian Church in Kentucky. A second synod, at first independent, but soon connecting itself with the Southern General Assembly, claimed the adherence of Presbyterians, and each synod declared itself the only rightful owner of Centre College.

Both synods earnestly endeavored to find by negotiations some basis for an agreement. The synod connected with the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America (north) was in legal possession of the college. The synod connected with the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States (south) probably represented the larger constituency of the college. It was impracticable to divide the property of the institution. A joint control could not be arranged. The southern synod therefore carried into the courts its claim that, as possessing the allegiance of most of those interested in the college, it was the real successor of the original synod which had founded and developed the college. The northern synod resisted. The case was finally settled when the Supreme Court of the United States handed down the Walnut Street Church decision, which applied to all of the property in dispute between the two synods, including Centre College. This decision is of great importance to all religious bodies in any part of the Union. The final tribunal declared that the separation of church and state in the United States necessarily remitted all ecclesiastical disputes to the decision of the church authorities, and that the property of the church authorities was not affected by the withdrawal from communion with them of certain of their adherents, even if these adherents were in the majority, provided that thereby the legal continuity of the said ecclesiastical authorities was not broken. The northern Presbyterian synod was therefore legally the same body as it had been before the congregations now composing the southern synod had

withdrawn from it, and was entitled to continue in possession of all the original synod's rights. Among the rights then confirmed by the Supreme Court was the exclusive power to elect the trustees of Centre College.

This decision caused the establishment of the Central University. A public meeting of dissatisfied alumni of Centre College was held in the spring of 1872 in the Masonic Temple, Louisville. This meeting unanimously adopted a call for an educational convention to be held at Lexington in the ensuing month, where the entire question of founding a new college, to be the real continuation of Centre College, would be considered. The southern Presbyterian synod was also called in special session at Lexington at the same time. Together the educational convention and the synod elaborated a plan whereby, subject to details to be arranged later, an institution of learning was to be established to take the place of the one of which they considered themselves to have been unjustly deprived, this new college to be under the joint control of the alumni of Centre College and the southern synod. One hundred and fifty thousand dollars were raised, and in 1873 the legislature granted a charter to the corporation, which was styled the Alumni Association of Central University, and the institution soon after opened its doors at Richmond. The alumni association, which included all the alumni of Centre College graduated previous to the separation and the alumni to be graduated in the future from the Central University itself, was to elect the governing body, the southern Presbyterian synod to control the theological school and one of the preparatory schools. In 1884 the charter was so amended that the right of election was conveyed from the alumni association to the southern synod, the synod to elect two thirds of the board of curators, however, from the membership of the association.

It must not be thought that the founding of Central University was due to the mere desire that the new ecclesiastical organization should have a college of its own. Nor did the feeling that legal and not moral justice had triumphed in the courts bear a large part. The predominant reason was the belief, inherent in Presbyterianism since its foundation, of the independence of the ecclesiastical authority. Thirty years had not passed since Dr. Chalmers and his brethren had, in obedience to their interpretation of that doctrine, walked out of the Established Church of Scotland, and southern Presbyterians felt that the recent court decisions had gone much further than Christian liberty permitted in determining matters which should be left exclusively to the church's law. Central University represented, therefore, an important element in the thought which had divided the Presbyterian Church.

The first college class of the university was graduated in 1877, and the graduates between that period and 1901 number about three hundred. In the last decade of the institution's separate existence they began to make their college at Richmond felt in the professional and political life of the community, but they are now, of course, assimilated to the larger roll of Centre College alumni, which in its turn has become the list of graduates of the Central University. The graduates on this roll

continue to play as prominent a part in Kentucky professional and political life as did their fathers in the days around the great war. A short time ago both United States senators from Kentucky were graduates of the same year; at a recent state election, no matter which party triumphed, the governor was sure to be a son of Central University; and fifty years after John C. Breckenridge, '38, was Vice-President of the United States the same high office was given by the people to Adlai E. Stevenson, '56. The college has the honor also of having graduated Mr. Justice Harlan.

In 1901 all the parties holding any right in either Centre College or Central University agreed to the amalgamation of both institutions under the name of the Central University of Kentucky. The college of liberal arts, which was to continue to be called Centre College, was to remain at Danville. The property at Richmond was to be turned into a good preparatory school of high grade, while the medical and dental schools established at Louisville by the first Central University were to remain as hitherto. The administration of the united university was to be in the hands of a board of trustees, half of whom should be elected by the Presbyterian synod north and half by the synod south.

On November 5, 1905, President Hinitt of the Central University of Kentucky addressed to the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation a memorandum, setting forth the various provisions in the original charter of Centre College against any teaching of "doctrines peculiar to any one sect of Christians," and emphasizing that the two Presbyterian synods of Kentucky were under no obligation to elect Presbyterians as trustees of the university, the synods acting merely as agents of the university to elect for it its trustees. These arguments were again stated to the president of the Foundation, with more elaboration, in the spring of 1906 by the chairman of the executive committee of the university. The Foundation was informed in this letter that the board of trustees was willing to pass the resolution certifying that no denominational considerations entered into the choice of trustees. The answer to these statements of the authorities of Central University is summed up in the letter of the secretary of the Foundation, February 19, 1907: "Let me say, however, that as long as the synods have power to appoint the members of your board, Central University technically will be denominational with us and not eligible to the benefits of the Foundation."

After several conferences in the offices of the Foundation, President Hinitt, on April 17, 1907, submitted a formal proposition to the president of the Foundation, suggesting the following plan: "That the synods of Kentucky agree that the board of trustees shall be made self-perpetuating, the election of new members being reported to the synods each year, the synods retaining the power of veto, but the synods by joint resolution declaring that the veto power shall never be exercised on sectarian grounds." On May 10 the president of the Foundation replied that the executive committee directed him to say that the committee felt such an arrange-

ment as the one suggested, "under which the board of trustees might become self-perpetuating, but the synods should retain the power of veto, would be an arrangement still leaving the institution under the control of the denomination. . . . Our legal advisers tell us that we have no latitude in a matter of this sort, and that we run a considerable risk of violating our charter if we give retiring allowances in an institution which, by any technical form, is still under the control of a denominational body."

On November 18, 1907, President Hinitt formally advised the president of the Foundation that the Synod of Kentucky of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America and the Synod of Kentucky of the Presbyterian Church in the United States had each resolved to resign its respective power of electing half of the board of trustees of the Central University of Kentucky, and that therefore on November 7 the agreement of consolidation between the Centre College of Kentucky and the Central University of Kentucky had been amended, pursuant to the laws of the state, so as to provide hereafter that the board of trustees of the consolidated university should be self-perpetuating. This agreement also provided that "no denominational or sectarian test shall be applied in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers, nor in the admission of students, and no religious doctrines peculiar to any one sect of Christians shall be inculcated by any professors in said university." The calendars of the preparatory schools of the university, under which those schools could not be credited by the Foundation with full fourteen units, were altered so as to bring them up to the fourteen unit standard, and on March 26, 1908, the university was admitted to a full participation in the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation.

DRURY COLLEGE

In 1869 the Reverend H. B. Fry, a graduate of Oberlin College, came to Carthage, Missouri, to take up the work of the Congregational churches in that section. As soon as he had become acquainted with southwestern Missouri he felt that the predominant need was for a centre of educational influence. It is difficult to realize that in a state which had been admitted into the Union fifty years before, and within two hundred miles of St. Louis, the conditions were as much those of the pioneers as prevailed at the time in Missoula or Cheyenne. It was only ten years since the Delaware Indians had given up the country to the undisturbed occupancy of the white man. It was not until the year after Mr. Fry took up his pastoral charge that communication with the outside world changed from the horse and the ox-team to that of the locomotive.

Southwestern Missouri had suffered, in addition, from a burden which had never befallen the pioneer communities of the Rocky Mountains and the north Pacific coast. A few feeble tribes of scattered Indians had been the only danger of those regions, and the danger, such as it was, had served to bind all the white settlers in a

common bond. But Missouri had been the theatre of a civil war, which in this section had assumed a character singularly relentless. Springfield was early recognized as the strategic key to half the state. Battles which deeply concerned Washington and Richmond were fought in its neighborhood, and the city repeatedly changed hands between Union armies with their base around the state capital and Confederate armies advancing from Arkansas.

In 1869 the streets and houses of Springfield still showed the effects of Fremont's occupation and Marmaduke's assaults, while mounds overgrown with the vegetation of five years indicated to the traveler the ruins of a hamlet or plantation fired by some band like that of Quantrell's. Such educational institutions as had existed prior to 1860 had been swept away. A generation was approaching manhood which, growing up in war and the poverty following war, had never possessed any opportunity for systematic education. In such circumstances the desire for knowledge runs low. Mr. Fry and some of his colleagues in the Congregational ministry felt that a strong influence was necessary to preserve this fine Anglo-Saxon stock from degenerating into ignorance, and undeterred by the impoverished condition of the people and the indifference to learning naturally felt by a youth to whom education is only a tradition, they determined to found a college.

Mr. Fry and the Reverend H. D. Lowing of Neosho, a town on the border of the then Indian Territory, presented their project to the Springfield Association of Congregational Churches at its meeting in Springfield in March, 1872. Mr. Lowing preached and Mr. Fry introduced the resolutions pledging support in the establishment of a college. The association adopted the resolutions and appointed a committee to select a location. After a contest between Springfield, Neosho, and Pierce City, Springfield was selected as the best situation, Dr. Nathan J. Morrison of the Congregational College and Education Society strongly advocating that city, and promising aid from the society and friends in the east if the college were fixed there and Springfield herself raised an adequate sum. The college was at first chartered as Springfield College, and Dr. Morrison was the first president. The name was later changed to Drury College, in honor of Mr. Samuel F. Drury of Michigan, an early giver.

The opening was attended with many discouraging circumstances. The building was unfinished, and a lien for seven thousand dollars had been filed against it. The panic year of 1873 made dark days for any institution dependent upon gifts. One most encouraging feature was, however, always present. The boys of the Ozarks only needed an opportunity to revive the hereditary desire for knowledge. As soon as the institution was actually open, the evil effects of the ten years of educational stagnation began to lose their influence, and the classes were full of students who had ridden a hundred miles on horseback in order to attend college.

Such a desire for education generally creates the means. A citizen of Tunbridge Wells, England, gave fifteen thousand dollars and thus made possible the completion

of the first building. Mrs. Valeria S. Stone of Massachusetts, a generous friend of Bowdoin College, a few years later gave fifty thousand dollars for an endowment and thirty thousand additional. With Mrs. Stone's gift a chapel was built, whose cornerstone was laid in 1880, in the presence of one hundred and fifty members of the National Congregational Council, then in session in St. Louis. This chapel was burnt before it was completed, but the people of Springfield came forward with what the insurance did not cover, and the chapel was rebuilt.

In 1887 the college, however, had again fallen into a disastrous financial condition. Its paper was dishonored, even grocery bills were unpaid, and a deficit of from five to seven thousand dollars was annually expected in this emergency. Dr. Francis T. Ingalls became the second president. Through good business administration, the coöperation of the alumni, and many small gifts, the funded debt of \$44,000 was paid off, the chapel was fully completed, and when Dr. Ingalls died, in 1892, the college was ready to inaugurate with hopes of success a movement to place it upon a sound financial basis.

A gift of \$50,000 from Dr. D. K. Pearsons of Chicago, one of an equal amount from the General Education Society, and a third gift of the same size from Mr. Andrew Carnegie, enlarged the endowment greatly, enabling the college to add new buildings to the equipment, and to strengthen the curriculum. All of these gifts were made conditional upon the raising of equal or greater sums, which was accomplished through the manifold sacrifices of the alumni of the college and the people of Springfield and the Ozark region. The Congregational College and Education Society has always been a firm friend to Drury College.

In the original articles of association of Drury College was a provision that a majority of the trustees should be "connected with the family of Christian churches commonly known as the Congregational Churches of the United States," and in a later section of the articles this provision was explained thus: "No religious or political test as a condition precedent to the enjoyment of all the advantages afforded by Drury College for study and instruction shall ever be established or allowed by the board of trustees; and the permanent restriction of a majority of the board of trustees to persons connected with a particular religious denomination is to be understood as intended only to guard the interests of the college from the unseemly and dangerous rivalry of other sects, and to place the college so closely in sympathy with some one religious denomination that it shall always have a constituency and a home." On November 22, 1907, the Circuit Court of Greene County, Missouri, sitting at Springfield, amended the articles of incorporation so as to eliminate from them all reference to any denominational restriction upon the board of trustees. The board of trustees also passed a resolution certifying that in the choice of trustees, officers, and professors no denominational test will be imposed.

The admission requirements of the college having been slightly changed, by raising them a fraction of a unit, to conform to the full requirement of fourteen units,

Drury College was, on March 26, 1908, admitted to all of the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation.

ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE

Rose Polytechnic Institute is the result of the philanthropy of Chauncey Rose, one of the foremost business men of early Indiana. Chauncey Rose was born in a retired farm-house on the Wethersfield Meadows, in Connecticut, in 1794, the descendant of a Highland Scotch family which had emigrated to the Colonies early in the eighteenth century. When he reached his majority the New England youth determined to move out into the frontier country and grow rich with the development of the new communities. This was an aspiration common to many thousands on the Atlantic seaboard, but the circumspection with which young Rose arranged the plans for his new life was unique, and presaged his future success. The average emigrant plunged into the wilderness by the first convenient road and settled at the first spot which seemed attractive, generally moving again and again until good fortune or weariness fixed him at a permanent home. The Connecticut youth, however, waited until, at twenty-three, he had saved up enough money to last for a year or more, and then he traveled through all of the states between the Alleghenies and the Mississippi, investigating the advantages they offered for a business location. The country around Terre Haute, Indiana, made a favorable impression upon him, and in April, 1818, he settled in the neighborhood. Indiana had been admitted into the Union less than two years before; Terre Haute consisted of two cabins, there were no roads, and the first steamboat had not yet come up the Wabash River.

But his wide journeyings through the frontier regions had given Mr. Rose skill in forecasting the possibilities of a community, and Terre Haute, with its dependent territory, now began to grow rapidly. Mr. Rose had engaged in trade, and as he became quickly one of the most popular and successful merchants in that part of Indiana, the growth of the country laid for him the foundation of a fortune. The profits made in trade were invested in farm land, and so judiciously that the farms have gradually, with the increase of population, become the streets and residence sites of the cities. Mr. Rose was foremost in laboring to give Indiana railway transportation. The Terre Haute and Indianapolis Railroad was built principally through his exertions, and he bore a large part in the construction of the numerous railroads running from Terre Haute to the other cities of the state which have made Terre Haute an important railroad centre.

During the period when he was thus building up a large estate, Mr. Rose contributed generously to the public needs. To his birthplace of Wethersfield he gave the old Rose homestead, aided the town library, and endowed an academy. Wabash College often received liberal contributions from him. The State Normal School at Crawfordsville was an object of his constant interest. But it was at Terre Haute that his philanthropic activity manifested itself on a scale rare in the middle nineteenth cen-

tery. The Providence Hospital, a free dispensary, and the Rose Orphan Home were founded by him there, and toward the end of his life he began to consider the best means of bestowing his entire wealth upon the community in which he had lived so long.

This he felt should be done by aid to education, and his experiences as a railroad builder had naturally interested him in education of an industrial and scientific kind. He wished to offer to the young men of his neighborhood the opportunity, along with a good general education, to become technically equipped for the industrial vocation they had chosen, so that with practical aptitude they might be able to give full scope to their inventive and constructive talents. He therefore determined to endow a polytechnic school, and in the carrying out of this plan adopted the same wise care and forethought that fifty years before he had displayed in selecting his permanent home.

Mr. Rose's own education had been confined to a few terms at a district school, and although he visited noted institutions which gave prominence to scientific subjects, he distrusted his own judgment. He therefore consulted experts in science and education, and appointed a commission to investigate all the institutions in the United States which offered courses in higher technology. Upon reading the elaborate report of this commission, and securing all other available information and advice, Mr. Rose resolved to repeat, as far as changed circumstances would permit, the plan of what is now the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, and therefore organized the board of managers of the Terre Haute School of Industrial Science, and transferred to them funds adequate to the erection of buildings and the inauguration of the enterprise. In 1875 the corner-stone of the main building was laid, and the board of managers, against the persistent protest of the donor, changed the name to the Rose Polytechnic Institute. In 1877 Mr. Rose died, making a large specific bequest to the institute, and constituting the institute, after certain individual devises and devises to his Terre Haute charitable foundations, his residuary legatee.

The board of managers selected as the first president Dr. Charles O. Thompson, president of the Worcester Polytechnic Institute, and after a year of travel, visiting the technological institutions of the United States and Europe, Dr. Thompson formally opened the Rose Polytechnic Institute in 1883. Two courses were given—in mechanical and in civil engineering—and twenty-three students were enrolled under a faculty of four professors, a shop superintendent, and three instructors. In 1885 the first class was graduated. In 1889 a chemical course was added, and in 1898 a course in electrical engineering. In 1898 the course in architecture was organized; in 1899 the alumni were given representation on the board of managers; 1903 saw the introduction of a limited amount of elective work in certain courses.

The policy of the institute has been to combine practice with technological training, and therefore the shop has always played a prominent part in the institute's life. It is, as far as possible, the counterpart of a commercial establishment, skilled

mechanics working alongside the students, and taking up the students' tasks after the latter have worked long enough at them to gain experience. This work is always upon articles ordered by mercantile establishments, but the students, while thus stimulated by the practical value of their labor, are not kept upon their tasks with the idea of developing skilled mechanics, as would be the object in a trade school. The idea is to familiarize the student with machine tools so that he can superintend work connected with them, and also to give him sufficient acquaintance with shop methods to enable him to design machinery which must be produced by these methods. The number of students which can be conveniently accommodated by the institute—about 240—has for several years been reached; the entrance class is limited to seventy. The faculty now numbers twelve, with a total instructing staff of twenty-three, and in 1907 thirty-six degrees were conferred.

The formal entrance requirements of the Rose Polytechnic Institute, as was the case with many technical schools, were far below the fourteen units at the inauguration of the work of the Foundation. When the institute was founded, entrance requirements for technical schools were low, and a policy was thus established which made the extensive raising of requirements difficult. Probably in practice considerably higher standards prevailed. The board of managers, however, took the entrance requirements actively in hand about two years ago, and by the opening of the academic year 1908-9 the full fourteen units will be formally demanded of all students. On December 17, 1907, having provided for such action, the board of managers requested admission to the Foundation, and on March 26, 1908, the Rose Polytechnic Institute was formally admitted to the full benefits of the Carnegie Foundation.

FRANKLIN COLLEGE

The year following the organization in 1833 of the Indiana Baptist General Association (now the Indiana Baptist Convention), fourteen of those who, after long advocacy, had finally succeeded in effecting this tie of union for the Baptists of Indiana, assembled in Indianapolis to consider the question of Baptist education. Educational facilities in the state at that time were meagre, and residence at an eastern institution, in addition to the difficulties of travel, was beyond the financial ability of most. The fourteen men who met at Indianapolis were emigrants from other states. In their former homes, whether old states like Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, or newer communities such as Kentucky and Tennessee, colleges were accessible, and they felt that they must create for their sons as good opportunities in the new state as these would have enjoyed if they had been reared in their fathers' old homes.

Twelve of the fourteen were ministers in charge of Baptist congregations. In accordance with the custom of the denomination at that time, they were also engaged in other occupations, such as farming, hotel-keeping, and the practice of medicine, and from these latter occupations they derived their livelihood. But the business

which gave them a living by no means distracted their interest from their ministerial work, and it was unanimously resolved "that in the opinion of this meeting the Baptists of this state need an institution of learning under their immediate patronage and subject to their direction."

The meeting directed that a committee of thirty-five be appointed to correspond with Baptists in all parts of the state and solicit their coöperation, and that a draft of a constitution be framed and presented to the meeting at Franklin in the following autumn. The meeting set an intermediate date when it would assemble and examine proposals for a site. The smallness of these educational beginnings may be realized from the one proposal which was ready at this next meeting,—a certain J. M. Robinson offered six acres of land and \$425 in subscriptions, provided that W. J. Robinson be a teacher in the new school.

The fourteen were not men easily discouraged, however, and proceeded to organize the Indiana Baptist Education Society, which should control the proposed institution. Mr. Robinson now offered the land and \$1400. Other offers of about the same amount were made in order to secure the location of the school in certain towns. Finally, in June, 1835, it was resolved that the education society should build at Franklin, near Indianapolis, the Indiana Manual Training Institute, with a provision for both literary and theological courses of study. The education society, at the same time, elected a board of directors, consisting of thirty-five members, to manage the institute. In December this board ordered the erection of a frame building 26 feet by 38 feet, and appropriated for the building fifty dollars on account. In the summer of 1836 this building was finished and painted white, costing about \$350, and the equipment being then provided, the board voted "that the Honorable Jesse L. Holman be respectfully invited to accept the office of principal of the Indiana Baptist Manual Training Institute, and that he devote so much of his time and attention to this institute as will not materially interfere with the duties of the office of Judge of the United States District Court." As Judge Holman's judicial district included the entire state of Indiana, he felt compelled to decline. A graduate of Waterville College, now Colby College, in Maine, was secured as a teacher, and the work of instruction in the little frame building began.

This work advanced in the face of multiplied financial difficulties. In 1844 a regular scheme of collegiate studies was adopted; in 1845 the institution was re-chartered as Franklin College of Indiana, and in 1847 a brick building was ready for the use of the college and the first degree of bachelor of arts was conferred. In 1855 a second brick building was completed, and plans for an adequate endowment for the college were being formed when the outbreak of the civil war stopped for the time all large educational undertakings. The college had often been in such dire need of money that the work on the first brick building had to be done piecemeal as the funds were on hand, and the county commissioners were once consulted by the board of directors on the legality of peddling clocks donated to the college,

other goods and wares which had formed parts of donations having been sold by the directors at Franklin. In 1850 an execution was actually in the hands of the sheriff on a judgment against the college, but some friends averted the danger by assuming the payment of the judgment. Notwithstanding these adversities the college was constantly educating a larger body of youth, and winning friends for its work, and probably would have continued uninterruptedly but for the patriotism of its students. Two of the graduates of 1861 were not at the commencement to receive their degrees; a footnote to their names on the program reading, "In the United States Army." More and more of the students were thus drawn off as the struggle increased in seriousness, until by June, 1864, hardly any young men remaining to receive instruction, the doors of the college were closed.

In 1868 the directors reopened the college and a new financial start was made. An able and energetic president was secured, subscriptions were obtained, and fifty students entered the institution. Notwithstanding all efforts, however, a sufficient endowment fund could not be raised, current expenses absorbed the subscriptions that were collected, and in January, 1872, the college was again closed.

But the benefits of Franklin College had been too strongly felt by the people of Franklin and of Johnson County to permit of their being willing to let the institution die. A plan was formed to organize a stock company and buy the college property from the Education Society. On June 21, 1872, the proposed subscribers met at the Baptist Church in Franklin and completed the organization necessary to make them a stock company, the articles of incorporation being so framed as to secure the location of the college permanently at Franklin and to provide that the institution should always be under the control of the Baptist denomination. To this end it was provided that the president of the college and a majority of the trustees should always be Baptists and that this provision should not be subject to change.

This meeting reported that subscriptions amounting to \$51,000 had been pledged, \$36,000 of these subscriptions coming from citizens of Johnson County. With these assets—although the collection of some of the subscriptions was resisted until the Supreme Court of Indiana declared them to be binding—the Franklin College Association assumed the debts of the old organization, amounting to about \$13,000, and by foreclosing an old mortgage against the former board and purchasing the property at sheriff's sale, secured title to the campus and the buildings of the college.

In the fall of 1872 Franklin College was again opened, and never since has there been any doubt of its being established upon a firm basis. The resources have steadily increased, buildings have been added to the equipment, and the endowment has grown until now the college has \$250,000 invested in safe securities. The total enrolment in the strictly collegiate departments numbers one hundred and sixty.

The Franklin College Association is therefore entitled to the affectionate recollection of all interested in Franklin College. The association took the college when it was closed, and, opening it for the reception of students, carried it along in constantly

increasing strength and usefulness until the college arrived at the position it occupies to-day. But the government of an institution by stockholders is subject to many inconveniences, especially when most of the original subscribers are dead and their heirs are too widely scattered to assemble at the annual meetings. The appreciation of these inconveniences had been growing for some time among the friends of the college, and in 1907 steps were taken to introduce the form of government usual in American colleges and universities. Waivers were secured from the original subscribers or their heirs, and on October 21, 1907, the former association was dissolved, and a new corporation created to govern Franklin College, by which the control of the college was vested in a board of directors of twenty-four members, one third of whom should retire each year. All members were to be elected by the board itself, and no denomination requirement or restriction was placed upon the free choice of the directors.

In March, 1908, the authorities of Franklin College forwarded to the Carnegie Foundation a certified copy of this new charter, and also a copy of a resolution adopted by the board of directors, on the third of that month, that in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers no denominational test is imposed, etc. The educational standard of the college, and the amount of its endowment also, satisfying the requirements of the Foundation, Franklin College was on June 4, 1908, admitted to all the privileges of the Foundation.

UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI

The design for an institution of higher learning at Cincinnati is over a hundred years old, for in 1807 the legislature of Ohio passed an act incorporating the Cincinnati University. The project did not get beyond the incorporation, however, and was soon forgotten. Cincinnati was then a frontier village.

Seven years later there was organized the Cincinnati-Lancaster Seminary. In 1820 this seminary was merged with Cincinnati College, incorporated the preceding year, and for several years the consolidated institution was prosperous and seemed assured of a future; but in 1825 its finances became disordered and the sessions were suspended. Ten years later Cincinnati College reopened, with a college of liberal arts, a school of medicine, and a school of law. The law school was the continuation of a private law school founded by some eminent practitioners in 1838, being the first school of law west of the Alleghenies, and only preceded in the United States by the legal departments of Harvard, Yale, and the University of Virginia. The school of medicine was likewise the continuation of another institution, the Medical College of Ohio having been chartered in 1819 and opened for instruction in the following year. It is the oldest medical school in the west.

Cincinnati College, in this second period of activity, lasted only ten years. In 1845 the building in which the academic sessions were held was destroyed, and with the exception of the school of law, classes were discontinued. The establishment of

higher education in Cincinnati upon a permanent basis was finally due to the munificence of **Charles McMicken**, one of the pioneer merchants of the city. Mr. McMicken was born in Pennsylvania during the revolutionary war, and as early as 1808 was a flatboat trader along the Ohio, with his headquarters in the rude outpost of civilization opposite the mouth of the Licking. As this small town grew into a great city, and the Ohio became a great highway of commerce, Mr. McMicken's wealth increased, and when he died, in 1858, his estate exceeded a million dollars. By his will Mr. McMicken bequeathed the greater part of this property to the city of Cincinnati, to found "an institution where white boys and girls might . . . receive the benefit of a sound, thorough, and practical English education, and such as might fit them for the active duties of life, as well as instruction in all the higher branches of knowledge, except denominational theology." Half of this bequest, consisting of real estate in Louisiana, could not be devoted to the testator's object, as the Supreme Court of Louisiana decided that realty in that state was incapable of being bequeathed to a foreign corporation. The remainder of the property being insufficient to establish an institution of higher education, it was allowed to accumulate for about ten years.

In 1870 the city council of Cincinnati endeavored, under authority of an act passed by the legislature of Ohio, to consolidate the various educational trusts in the city, principally the Cincinnati College, the McMicken fund, and the Astronomical Society, into a University of Cincinnati. It was thought that if all of these trusts were united the income would be sufficient to furnish a university of broad type. The project could not be carried out in its entirety at that time, but the trustees of the McMicken fund turned over their property to the board of directors appointed by the city, and steps to furnish instruction in the higher education were immediately taken. The board began the erection of a building with the proceeds of a bond issue authorized by the city, and not waiting for the building's completion, college classes were opened in 1878 in the Woodward High School. The first instructors were drawn from the high school staff. In 1875 the first university building, on the site of the McMicken homestead, was ready for the new institution, and in 1877 one student was graduated. The next year there were eight graduates, and the student body has gradually increased until now there are over seven hundred students receiving instruction in the McMicken College of Liberal Arts, while nearly two hundred students are enrolled in the College of Engineering, which was made an independent college of the university in 1904.

In 1887 the university attached to itself the Clinical and Pathological School organized that year by the medical staff of the Cincinnati Hospital. In 1896 the Ohio Medical College was affiliated, the Clinical and Pathological School becoming an auxiliary department. Since then both the Ohio Medical College and the school have been absorbed as integral parts of the university. In 1907 the Miami Medical College of Cincinnati, founded in 1852, became amalgamated with the college of medicine of

the university. Funds have been provided for chairs whose occupants will devote all of their time and attention to teaching, and in conjunction with the new Public Hospital of Cincinnati, largely under the direction of the medical faculty of the university, modern instruction in medicine is offered commensurate with the importance of such a city as Cincinnati.

The University Law School, organized by a number of the younger members of the Cincinnati bar, began to give instruction in 1896. In the following year a union was effected between it and the Law School of the Cincinnati College, mentioned before as having been organized in 1838. The school became the College of Law of the University of Cincinnati, although it retains the old charter granted to Cincinnati College in 1819, and the title to its property is still vested in the board of trustees acting under that charter. The alumni of the Cincinnati Law School, which is thus the oldest portion of the University of Cincinnati, comprises many of the eminent lawyers who have been distinguished at the bar of the middle west during the last three quarters of a century, while the list of the professors of law includes such well-known jurists as Governors George Hoadley and Jacob D. Cox, Judson Harmon, Attorney-General under President Cleveland, Alphonso Taft, Attorney-General under President Grant, and his son, William H. Taft, Secretary of War under President Roosevelt. Judge Taft, while he sat on the United States circuit court bench at Cincinnati, acted as dean of the school.

One of the most valued of the components of the university is the astronomical observatory. The Cincinnati Astronomical Society was organized in 1842 under the leadership of Ormsby McKnight Mitchel, then a professor in Cincinnati College, and immediately began to plan an observatory. The corner-stone of this was laid in 1848 by John Quincy Adams. When the university was established, the Astronomical Society desired to transfer the observatory to it, and after the city had made provision for the perpetual support of the observatory by a special tax, the transfer was effected in 1872. Professor Cleveland Abbe, first director of the observatory after its connection with the university, began issuing, with the cooperation of the Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce, a series of bulletins of weather conditions for the benefit of the mariners of the Great Lakes, the first of the kind ever issued in this country. These bulletins lead directly to the establishment of the United States Weather Bureau, with which Professor Abbe has been connected as professor of meteorology since its foundation. The observatory buildings, with the new telescope, are located on Mount Lookout, the highest elevation around Cincinnati.

Within ten years after the building on the old McMicken homestead was occupied, it became apparent that the accommodations of the university were inadequate, and in 1889 the city council set aside forty-three acres in Burnet Woods as an enlarged site. In 1904 a beginning was made toward the permanent housing of the university on this site when the council appropriated \$100,000 for the erection of McMicken Hall. The private generosity of several citizens of Cincinnati has made this the cen-

tre of a group of buildings. Until 1898 the income was derived from the fees of students and from endowment, but in that year the city council began to levy a special tax for the university. In 1898 this tax amounted to \$37,000, with \$6000 additional for the observatory. It has steadily augmented since, until during the fiscal year of 1907, including a special appropriation by the board of education to the College for Teachers, the university received from the city \$189,000. In 1908 the university was added to the list of purposes for which the city might bond itself, from which list it had been omitted on a previous revision of the municipal code, and steps are now being taken to provide an issue of bonds so that new buildings may be added to the university's equipment.

Since its establishment in 1870 the university has had several changes of government, the board of trustees being in the beginning elected by the city council, and later appointed by those judges of the highest state court who hold terms in Cincinnati. The supreme control of the university is at present vested in a board of directors, consisting of nine members, appointed for a term of six years by the mayor of Cincinnati.

Within a short time after the establishment of the Carnegie Foundation President Dabney of the University of Cincinnati directed the attention of the Foundation to the unique position of the university among tax-supported institutions, in that it had been founded by private benefaction, had received large gifts subsequently from individuals, and had a considerable income at present as the result of the original endowment and private additions thereto. The Foundation thought that the case of the University of Cincinnati might well await the final decision in regard to all tax-supported institutions, and therefore the application was not definitely acted upon by the executive committee. Mr. Carnegie's enlargement of the endowment of the Foundation on March 31, 1908, made it unnecessary to consider whether the status of the University of Cincinnati was different from that of the state universities, and on June 4 the president of the Foundation informed President Dabney that the executive committee had voted to admit the University of Cincinnati whenever the application of the board of directors was approved by the mayor of Cincinnati and the city council. In a letter which followed, the president of the Foundation said: "The executive committee felt that in the case of a municipal university, it is only fair that such an institution should observe the same restrictions which Mr. Carnegie had placed upon institutions supported by the taxation of a state, in order that it might be clearly understood that he has not sought to offer retiring allowances through this Foundation except with the consent of the community, or its representatives, which supports the institution."

On June 22, 1908, the Honorable Leopold Markbreit, mayor of Cincinnati, approved a resolution of the council of the city, "that the council of Cincinnati cordially approves the application of the president and board of directors of the University of Cincinnati of date of the seventeenth of May, nineteen hundred and seven,

for admission to the accepted list of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching? This resolution, with the approval of the mayor, having been formally certified to the Foundation by the clerk of the city, the executive committee, on July 2, formally admitted the University of Cincinnati to full participation in the privileges of the Foundation.

LIST OF INSTITUTIONS ON THE ACCEPTED LIST WITH DATA CONCERNING THEIR ACADEMIC AND FINANCIAL STATUS

It is the belief of the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation that colleges and universities have everything to gain by a frank statement to the public concerning their academic and financial administrations. The trustees believe also that an institution which receives so valuable an endowment as is contained in the establishment in it of an effective system of retiring allowances, will naturally expect to furnish complete information to the Foundation in matters of its administration. The following table gives for the colleges of the accepted list such data. The figures for the average salary of full professors are exclusive of the salaries in professional departments.

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INSTITUTIONS ON THE ACCEPTED LIST

DATA CONCERNING INSTITUTIONS

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	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for last Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
AMHERST COLLEGE Amherst, Massachusetts	1825	81	38	\$189,857	\$.....	\$2,882	14	515	4			
BATES COLLEGE Lewiston, Maine	1864	11	18	47,525	66,982	1,490	14	438	4			
BELOIT COLLEGE Beloit, Wisconsin	1848	20	33	76,711	26,022	1,657	14.9	308	4			
BOWDOIN COLLEGE Brunswick, Maine.....	1794	81	49	98,068	243,062	2,119	14	308	4			
CARLETON COLLEGE Northfield, Minnesota.....	1866	11	21	44,437		1,390	14	299	4			
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE Cleveland, Ohio	1880	18	35	145,543		2,845	14	440	4			
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Danville, Kentucky.....	1819	66	96	32,445		1,633	14	150	4			
CLARK UNIVERSITY Worcester, Massachusetts	1889	25	38	145,950		2,659	14	191	3			
CLARKSON SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY Potsdam, New York.....	1896	8	12	21,941		1,335	14.4	97	4			
COLORADO COLLEGE Colorado Springs, Colorado.....	1874	22	44	54,625	436,542	1,666	15	396	4			
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY New York City.....	1754	219	496	1,858,171	1,077,984	4,182	14.5	2463	4			
CORNELL UNIVERSITY Ithaca, New York	1865	172	488	1,356,499	233,486	3,006	15	2707	4			
DALHOUSIE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY Halifax, Nova Scotia.....	1821	12	63	34,907	5,737	2,044		281	4			
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE Hanover, New Hampshire	1789	61	87	270,000	35,722	2,478	14.5	1183	4			
DICKINSON COLLEGE Carlisle, Pennsylvania	1783	23	26	62,076	14,375	1,650	14	314	4			
DRAKE UNIVERSITY Des Moines, Iowa.....	1881	24	99	112,256		1,444	15	516	4	Col- lege De- gree	54	3
DRURY COLLEGE Springfield, Missouri.....	1873	14	17	28,524		1,411	15	138	4			
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA Franklin, Indiana	1835	10	14	23,806	36,492	1,175	14	225	4			
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Washington, D. C.....	1821	110	152	154,176	25,322	2,068	14.5	595	4			
HAMILTON COLLEGE Clinton, New York.....	1812	18	19	49,425	20,000	1,896	14	178	4			
HARVARD UNIVERSITY Cambridge, Massachusetts.....	1650	183	576	1,733,130	714,215	4,642	16	2806	3,3½, 4	Col- lege De- gree	31	3

¹Including 880 in Teachers' College.

ON THE ACCEPTED LIST

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 1 1/2 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
																		502	
																		486	
															8			308	
15	98	4													2			371	
													225		5			287	
															12			440	
10	375	4	2 yrs. H. S.	145	3				H. S.	28	2				9			162	
															76			191	
																		96	
													75	4	10		Forestry 11	241	
15 ^a	314	4			12 ^a	280	3	3 yrs. Coll.	249	3	11.5	22	2 ^a	897	3085	1892	Arch. 122	3281	
3 yrs. Coll.	316	4						15	206	3				249		841	Agric. 618 Nat. Sc. 82 Arch. 100	3354	
	67	5	Organized 1908	4					54	3		4	3					364	
10.4	58	4														86	Adm. and Finance 44	1171	
									11	94	3							298	
15	68	4							14.4	180	3		402	4		856	Commerce 107	840	
													181	4	1		Art 18	96	
													75	6				210	
14	198	4	14.5	52	3	1 yr. H. S.	61	3	14.5	323	3				94		Arch. 48	1001	
																		175	
Col- lege De- gree	345	4	14	68	3				Col- lege De- gree	716	3				400	104	1126	Agric. 22	3578

^a No specific requirements stated. ^b For certificate of proficiency. ^c In 1910-1911 two years college work will be required.
^d The course leading to the degree of Graduate in Pharmacy (conferred by College of Pharmacy independently of Columbia University) has 3 units entrance requirement.

DATA CONCERNING INSTITUTIONS

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	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for last Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			Theological School	
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students
HOBART COLLEGE Geneva, New York.....	1822	18	16	\$ 56,641 ¹	\$.....	\$1,675	14.4	106	4		
IOWA COLLEGE Grinnell, Iowa.....	1847	22	31	74,285	16,772	1,458	14	466	4		
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY Baltimore, Maryland.....	1867	79	168	327,787	761,000	3,674	15	336	4		
KNOX COLLEGE Galesburg, Illinois.....	1837	11	21	48,169		1,586	14	280	4		
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY Appleton, Wisconsin.....	1847	20	38	42,412	99,800	1,450	14	346	4		
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY South Bethlehem, Pennsylvania.....	1866	28	63	158,301	5,060	2,630	14.5	698	4		
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY Stanford University, California.....	1885	104	218	854,812		3,877	15	1612	4		
MCGILL UNIVERSITY Montreal, Quebec.....	1821	94	250	603,599	2,130,866	2,733		901	4		
MARIETTA COLLEGE Marietta, Ohio.....	1835	12	20	21,986	13,335	1,618	15	129	4		
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Boston, Massachusetts.....	1861	92	204	505,167	92,332	3,358	14	1410	4		
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE Middlebury, Vermont.....	1800	10	12	29,300	1,876	1,920	14	203	4		
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE South Hadley, Massachusetts.....	1836	37	90		11,059	1,438	14	711	4		
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY New York City.....	1831	101	241	316,539	41,882	3,663	15.5	636	4		
OBERLIN COLLEGE Oberlin, Ohio.....	1833	47	93	229,460	168,742	1,856	14 ²	818	4	Col- lege De- gree	53 3
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Brooklyn, New York.....	1854	15	38	120,187	50,999	2,610	14.5	252	4		
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY Princeton, New Jersey.....	1746	127	164	411,910	1,004,271	3,404	15.8	1301	4		
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE Cambridge, Massachusetts.....	1879							16	420	4	
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE Lynchburg, Virginia.....	1890	17	35			1,600	14.5	390	4		
RIPON COLLEGE Ripon, Wisconsin.....	1850	16	23	41,179	11,061	1,250	14	206	4		
ROSS POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Terre Haute, Indiana.....	1874	12	23	42,934		2,535	15	229	4		
SMITH COLLEGE Northampton, Massachusetts.....	1871	47	95		23,163	2,150	14.5	1473	4		

¹ For fiscal year of fifteen months, owing to change of date.

² Estimated on academy course.

ON THE ACCEPTED LIST (CONTINUED)

	School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 1 1/2 Units or More
	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
															1				90	
														141	3				890	
College Degree	347	4													171				590	
														326					243	
													14	57	4	18		Commerce 52 Fine Arts 81 Expression 44	345	
																4			690	
								15	26	3					100	18			1551	
				323	5	12	4				37	3		299	3			230	1124	
														126		4	104	Art 20	126	
															20				902	
																			208	
																			710	
	12	502	4					12.6	812	2-3					281	630		1719	1038	
													14	564	4		142	Art 58	1070	
															64	563 ^b			548	
															118				1245	
																			342	
													14	48	4	2		Art 23	200	
																			229	
															9				1473	

^a No specific requirements stated.

^b Data not given.

^c Teachers' course at Institute.

^d Specials not separated from candidates for degree.

DATA CONCERNING INSTITUTIONS

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	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for last Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Hoboken, New Jersey	1870	17	42	\$115,509	\$.....	\$3,127	14	435	4			
TRINITY COLLEGE Hartford, Connecticut	1823	18	23	53,648	14,716	2,078	14	214	4			
TUFTS COLLEGE Tufts College, Massachusetts.....	1850	65	204	177,953	42,511	1,870	14.6	452	4	14.6	11	3-6
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA New Orleans, Louisiana.....	1845	88	160	294,488	5,587	2,709	14.4	541	4			
UNION COLLEGE Schenectady, New York	1795	21	35	80,325	26,817	2,215	14.3	278	4			
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI Cincinnati, Ohio	1870	65	122	248,986	100,000	2,981	15	961	4			
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.....	1740	136	431	752,913	275,745	3,178	14.5	1302	4			
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.....	1787	62	149	166,365	14,000	1,718	15	252	4			
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER Rochester, New York.....	1851	17	24	64,775	18,922	1,971	14	373	4			
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT Burlington, Vermont	1791	59	80	100,889	1,964	14.5	259	4			
VASSAR COLLEGE Poughkeepsie, New York.....	1861	28	81	2,915	14.5	1002	4			
WARREN COLLEGE Crawfordsville, Indiana.....	1834	15	23	47,466	22,861	1,558	14	312	4			
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE Washington, Pennsylvania.....	1802	15	17	46,467	8,601	1,800	14	223	4			
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Saint Louis, Missouri.....	1853	83	177	449,797	244,811	2,638	14.5	331	4			
WELLESLEY COLLEGE Wellesley, Massachusetts.....	1870	50	120	244,663	6,407	1,927	14.5	1209	4			
WELLS COLLEGE Aurora, New York	1868	18	27	28,000	1,450	14.5	169	4			
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY Cleveland, Ohio	1826	74	193	196,555	273,253	2,700	15	566	4			
WILLIAMS COLLEGE Williamstown, Massachusetts.....	1793	34	56	162,947	12,212	2,815	14.5	494	4			
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Worcester, Massachusetts.....	1865	19	46	98,528	2,500	14	465	4			
YALE UNIVERSITY New Haven, Connecticut.....	1701	154	311	1,055,907	964,998	3,849	14.5	3202	4	Col- lege De- gree	96	3

ON THE ACCEPTED LIST (CONTINUED)

School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 1 1/2 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
																		435	
																		204	
6	387	4	6	251	3									10				427	
14.4	535	4				14.4	21	2	14.4	60	3			63	298	860	Art 91 Arch. 19	1108	
														7				278	
8	118	4							14	33	3			86			Cin. Hosp. 118 Teachers 151	670	
14.5 ³	605	4	12	390	3				14.5	303	3	1	42	4	350		382	1811	2826
12	359	4	8	181	3	4	209	2	12	105	3			16		41			242
																			318
11.4	152	4																Agric. 34 Commerce 49	381
														7					998
														3					250
														5		66			223
14 ⁴	221	4	4 yrs. H. S.	104	3				4 yrs. H. S.	101	3							Fine Arts 343	674
														25					1201
												1							169
3 yrs. Col-lege	102	4	8	75	3				14	133	3			20				Library Sch. 51	762
																			487
														20					465
3 yrs. Col-lege	137	4							3 yrs. Col-lege	510	3-5	1	83	2	357			Forestry 98 Fine Arts 39	3237

¹ No specific requirements stated.

² Data not given.

³ In 1900 one year of college work; in 1910-1911 two years of college work.

⁴ In 1910-1911 one year of college work.

EXCHANGE OF TEACHERS BETWEEN PRUSSIA AND THE UNITED STATES

In response to a request from the Minister of Instruction of Prussia the trustees voted at their meeting on November 20, 1907, to authorize the president of the Foundation to act as the agency in America for an exchange of teachers of English between the United States and Prussia. The purpose and plan of this exchange and the terms upon which teachers are accepted were set forth in full in a pamphlet issued by the Foundation in March, 1908.

Briefly stated, the plan contemplated an exchange under which a number of *gymnasium* teachers would come to the United States for a year and a similar number of college or high school teachers would go to Prussia. The American teacher was to give informal instruction in English for two hours a day to students who were prepared to receive such instruction. In no case was the instructor, whether in America or in Prussia, to take the place of a regular teacher. The instruction given by these teachers is intended to be supplementary to that ordinarily given and of a different sort. Such a teacher would talk with his pupils about affairs in his own country, the school regulations and methods of instruction, the ideals and customs of the people, and other matters of interest. While the work of the teacher is that of teaching in this informal conversational way his own language, he need not be necessarily a teacher of language in his own school. All that is asked is scholarly fitness to do the work well.

It was expected that a much wider purpose would be served than that of instruction alone. A *gymnasium* teacher serving for a year as a member of the teaching staff of a college or a high school in this country would not only gain new ideas in education, but would also communicate to his American associates fresh conceptions of the teacher's work. Similarly, it is scarcely possible that an alert American teacher could spend a semester or a year in a good Prussian *gymnasium* without returning to his work greatly strengthened by the experience.

It was in view of these advantages to be gained for teachers that the exchange was deemed to be justified, and the expense involved, both on the part of the teacher and of the schools, was believed to be a good investment. Prussian teachers who come to the United States receive from their government leave of absence with pay and the expense of travel. They receive from the college or high school in America to which they may be accredited a modest sum for board, usually \$50 a month, a total of \$200 or \$400 according as the length of service is a half year or an entire year.

There is no provision for paying the expenses of the American teacher or his salary, and the undertaking rests on the assumption that the opportunity to spend one or two semesters in a good German *gymnasium* will so commend itself to teachers in America that they will be willing to make some sacrifice to obtain it, and that at the same time those in control of undergraduate colleges and high schools will have

sufficient appreciation of the benefits to be obtained from the exchange to grant at least leave of absence with pay to the teacher who wishes to undertake this service. The American teacher receives from the Prussian government a sum considered sufficient to pay the cost of modest living expenses.

The exchange which has been arranged for the present year has been on the basis indicated above, the Prussian teacher who comes to America receiving his pay and cost of travel from his own government and the sum of \$50 a month for lodgings from the college to which he is sent; the American teacher receiving leave of absence with pay from his institution, paying his own traveling expenses and receiving from the Prussian government a stipend for the payment of board and lodgings.

The following Prussian teachers have been assigned under the plan of exchange to American schools:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Gymnasium from which he comes</i>	<i>Subject in which he is a teacher</i>	<i>Assignment in this country</i>
CONRADIN BRINKMANN	Teglitz	<i>History, French English, Latin</i>	Yale University New Haven, Connecticut
JOHANNES ADLER	Konitz	<i>French, English German</i>	Boston High School Boston, Massachusetts
FRIEDRICH ABE	Cassel	<i>French, English Latin</i>	Horace Mann School New York, New York
HEINRICH BEISENHERZ	Bielefeld	<i>German, French English</i>	Clark College Worcester, Massachusetts
HERMANN SCHUMACHER	Cologne	<i>Pure and Applied Mathematics and Physics</i>	Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston
OTTO MEIERFELD	Danzig	<i>English, French Geology</i>	Phillips Exeter Academy Exeter, New Hampshire
LUDWIG TOCKHARDT	Danzig	<i>French, English History</i>	University High School University of Chicago Chicago, Illinois

The following American teachers have been accredited to the Prussian schools:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Gymnasium in Prussia</i>
HOWARD W. CHURCH	Yale University	<i>German</i>	Oberrealschule, Bochum
HERMANN C. HENDERSON	State Normal School Milwaukee, Wisconsin	<i>Pedagogy, Psycho- logy, History of Edu- cation</i>	Realgymnasium, Stralsund
FREDERICK D. GREEN	Detroit University School	<i>Latin, Greek, Ger- man, History, Eng- lish</i>	Oberrealschule auf der burg Königsberg
FREDERICK W. OSWALD	University of Wisconsin	<i>German</i>	Gymnasium, Kiel
HARRY B. SMITH	Superintendent of Schools Waterloo, New York	<i>Physics, German Mathematics</i>	Realgymnasium, Altona Hamburg

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution</i>	<i>Subject</i>	<i>Gymnasium in Prussia</i>
WILLIAM A. AVERILL	High School Charleston, Illinois	<i>Algebra, Geometry Physiography</i>	Realgymnasium, Cassel
LYMAN G. SMITH	High School of Commerce Boston, Massachusetts	<i>Chemistry, Physics</i>	Realgymnasium, Harburg Hamburg
JAMES A. CAMPBELL	University of Kansas	<i>German</i>	Sachsenhäuser, Oberreal- schule Frankfurt, a/M

Although the exchange has scarcely more than begun, several matters have developed respecting it to which it seems desirable to call attention.

In Prussia a very large number of well-qualified teachers applied for the opportunity to exchange, and a large number of *gymnasias* asked for the assignment of American teachers.

In the United States a considerable number of teachers applied, nearly all of whom were from the central west. Very few applications came from New England, New York, or the Atlantic States, a result somewhat disappointing. This, however, was not so disconcerting as the lack of high schools or undergraduate colleges desiring to take, at the small expense involved, a German teacher. This arose, I am inclined to believe, from a misconception of the plan itself. Many American schools have found unsatisfactory results from the employment of foreign teachers of language and did not appreciate the fact that this plan involved a totally different thing from the employment of an ordinary teacher of elementary German. No one can deny that the teaching of German and French in many of our colleges and high schools is to-day of the most lifeless and superficial sort. This exchange does not furnish the American college or high school a teacher to take the place of a routine teacher of German, but it does furnish the opportunity to freshen and vivify the whole teaching of modern language, and in addition gives the great advantage of a comparison of methods of teaching with those of the Prussian *gymnasium*, where to-day are doubtless to be found the best teachers and the best teaching in any schools in the world. I hope that the realization of this opportunity—which in my judgment means even more for the American school than for the American teacher—will bring in the coming year a larger number of offers from the colleges and high schools to utilize the services of Prussian teachers.

The trustees may have noted that the inauguration of this exchange precipitated in English and German periodicals an amusing discussion as to whether Americans ought to be chosen to teach the English language. The fitness of Americans to teach English was warmly defended by Professor Brandl and other German university professors who had visited the United States.

The next assignment of teachers to Prussia will be made in June, 1909, for the semester beginning with the first of October following. Teachers who desire to take part in this exchange, and the head of any undergraduate college or high school who desires to secure the services of one of the Prussian teachers for the year 1909-10, or

for the half of that year, are asked to correspond with the president of the Foundation at as early a date as possible.

I am indebted to the following American scholars who kindly served on a committee to consider the applications of American teachers:

Dr. Calvin Thomas, Professor of the Germanic Languages and Literatures, Columbia University.

Dr. Julius Sachs, Professor of Secondary Education, Teachers College, Columbia University.

Mr. James G. Croswell, Head-master of the Brearley School, New York City.

THE COST OF MAINTAINING A RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN A COLLEGE

THE trustees and officers of the Carnegie Foundation have naturally sought to estimate as closely as possible the cost involved in maintaining a retiring allowance system in a college having a given number of professors. It is, however, difficult to make any accurate estimate until a longer experience has given some more definite knowledge of certain factors involved in the problem.

In making such a determination three sets of factors enter: first, the conditions of the retiring allowance system; second, the vital probabilities involved in the lives of persons on the retired list; third, the methods adopted by the various institutions in retiring professors.

The first two sets of factors are definite enough. The Carnegie Foundation pays retiring allowances based on definite rules and having a fixed relation to the active pay. One half of the retiring pay earned by a professor is paid to his widow in case of his death. The vital statistics relating to the lives of those on the retired roll are well known. The uncertainty comes in the methods which the colleges adopt in retiring their professors. At present only a few institutions make retirement at sixty-five compulsory, and even in such institutions the trustees by vote often extend the term of active service of a professor who is anxious to continue. The use of a retiring allowance system is new to most college officers and to most teachers. Consequently the average age of those retiring is considerably above the age limit set by the rules, and this notwithstanding the fact that a certain number of men have been retired on the basis of service at an age considerably below sixty-five. The average age of the one hundred and twelve professors (omitting those receiving disability allowances) from accepted institutions who have been retired since the inauguration of the Carnegie Foundation was sixty-eight at the date of their retirement. In general the tendency is for men to continue in service considerably beyond the age of sixty-five. Whether this will continue in the future it is impossible to say, but this uncertainty makes it difficult to estimate when a college with a given number of professors at given salaries has begun to throw upon the retiring allowance system its normal load. The following table, which shows the present rate of cost of the retiring allowance system in the sixty-two institutions now upon the accepted list, reveals some of the differences which have hitherto shown themselves in different institutions in the matter of retirement of professors. These differences have sprung from a variety of causes. In some institutions there were more aged men than in others when the Foundation was established. In nearly all colleges there is likely to occur at certain irregular epochs an unusual proportion of men of advanced years, a situation with which heretofore most colleges, in the absence of a retiring allowance system, have had no fair means of dealing. On the other hand, a number of the institutions are comparatively young; their professors were appointed from young men and they

have not yet grown a crop of old professors. In the main the discrepancies arise out of differences in administrative practice: in some institutions active service is terminated automatically at sixty-five and action of the executive board is required to prolong it; in most institutions no age is set for retirement and a professor can be placed on the retired list only by his own initiative or that of the authorities of the institution. The question as to when a professor shall retire is one with which the Carnegie Foundation has, of course, nothing to do. It rests entirely with the teacher and the authorities of his college.

The data here given refer to the spring of 1908, and the professors included in the lists of those in active service refer only to such as are eligible to the retiring allowance system. Teachers in professional departments of universities who give only a small part of their service to teaching and whose principal work lies outside the teacher's calling are not included.

The result shows that in the aggregate these sixty-two institutions contain some one thousand, six hundred and nineteen professors in active service and one hundred and sixteen professors on the retired list, and that the retiring allowance system is costing annually two hundred and three thousand two hundred and ninety dollars. This sum is five per cent of the active pay of all the professors in service in the sixty-two institutions. At this rate, a college whose faculty included twenty professors of all grades at an average annual salary of twenty-five hundred dollars would have an annual salary roll of fifty thousand dollars, and would expend twenty-five hundred dollars in maintaining its retiring allowance system. Whether this is a fair indication of the expense involved in the permanent maintenance of a retiring allowance system, it is difficult to say. It seems likely that the expense will ultimately be larger as colleges and teachers understand better the working of the retiring allowance system. The question has great significance in the work of the Foundation, since it affects directly the number of institutions which may be admitted. It cannot be too often repeated that the establishment of a complete and satisfactory retiring allowance system in a considerable number of representative colleges and universities is worth more to the cause of education than any arrangement under which the provision for retiring allowances is of a desultory and uncertain character.

**COST OF RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS
ARRANGED IN ORDER OF EXPENDITURE**

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INSTITUTIONS	Annual Cost of Retiring Allowance System	Salaries of Professors in Active Service	No. of Professors in Active Service	No. of Professors Eligible to receive Allowances		No. of Professors on Retired List	No. of Widows pensioned
				Basis of Age	Basis of Service		
YALE UNIVERSITY	\$25,195	\$417,519	132	5	1	11	2
CORNELL UNIVERSITY	16,570	394,208	152	2	9	9
HARVARD UNIVERSITY	16,305	625,068	164	12	16	7	2
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA	14,365	120,720	50	4	5	7	1
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	14,055	694,475	190	2	15	5	3
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	11,075	47,850	17	0	4	5
AMHERST COLLEGE	9,050	78,100	32	0	5	4	2
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY	7,165	334,700	127	3	9	4
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE OF BROOKLYN	4,850	33,100	41	0	0	3
OBERLIN COLLEGE	4,570	95,200	53	0	1	3	1
CARLETON COLLEGE	4,095	17,800	12	1	2	4
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY	4,050	20,500	11	0	2	3
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY	3,900	80,300	31	2	2	2
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER	3,720	33,662	17	3	2	2
TUFTS COLLEGE	3,480	66,933	34	1	1	4
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY	3,425	77,950	30	0	3	1	2
WELLS COLLEGE	3,260	27,200	19	1	0	3
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY	3,225	94,400	41	0	0	1	1
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE	3,005	32,200	15	1	3	3
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI	2,915	101,300	39	0	2	2
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE	2,830	110,300	49	3	2	2
MCGILL UNIVERSITY	2,825	154,400	59	0	6	1	1
BATES COLLEGE	2,755	17,300	11	1	0	2	1
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY	2,155	291,500	102	0	5	1	1
DRURY COLLEGE	2,065	15,200	10	0	1	2
VAMAR COLLEGE	2,025	76,170	27	1	0	1
RIFON COLLEGE	2,000	19,400	14	0	0	2
BELOIT COLLEGE	2,000	34,000	21	0	1	2
BOWDOIN COLLEGE	1,880	36,750	17	1	1
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE	1,820	49,300	20	1	2	1
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE	1,750	18,590	10	0	1	1

**COST OF RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS
ARRANGED IN ORDER OF EXPENDITURE (CONTINUED)**

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INSTITUTIONS	Annual Cost of Retiring Allowance System	Salaries of Professors in Active Service	No. of Professors in Active Service	No. of Professors Eligible to receive Allowances		No. of Professors on Retired List	No. of Widows pensioned
				Basis of Age	Basis of Service		
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE.....	\$1,730	\$47,000	36	0	2	2
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH	1,700	60,900	25	1	3	1
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE.....	1,650	43,450	18	0	1	1
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT.....	1,400	56,000	30	1	2	1
HOBART COLLEGE.....	1,300	20,750	13	2	0	1
DRAKE UNIVERSITY.....	1,280	36,250	24	1	1	1
DALHOUSIE UNIVERSITY.....	1,260	24,220	12	1	1	1
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY	1,200	192,983	62	3	6	1
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY..	1,200	101,550	78	1	5	1
TRINITY COLLEGE	1,200	40,300	18	1	0	1
MARIETTA COLLEGE.....	1,060	16,200	12	1	1	1
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE.....	1,025	26,425	14	0	1	1
IOWA COLLEGE	1,000	32,700	22	1	1	1
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA	970	13,000	9	0	3	1
KNOX COLLEGE.....	950	18,860	11	0	2	1
COLORADO COLLEGE.....	855	36,800	21	1	0	1
WELLESLEY COLLEGE.....	630	24,400	51	1	2	1
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY	500	22,800	20	0	0	1
CLARK UNIVERSITY	62,500	25	0	2
CLARSON SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY	13,400	9	0	0
DICKINSON COLLEGE	26,500	15	0	1
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY	60,750	28	0	2
HAMILTON COLLEGE	35,750	19	0	2
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY	170,144	50	2	2
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE	0	1
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.....	28,350	12	0	4
SMITH COLLEGE	2	4
UNION COLLEGE	34,220	17	0	2
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA	273,250	101
WARREN COLLEGE	24,450	15	0	0
WILLIAMS COLLEGE	28,800	36	3	3

UNIFORMITY IN FINANCIAL REPORTS

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ONE of the first difficulties met in attempting to present comparative college statistics lies in the absence of uniformity in college reports. In their financial exhibits a wide variation exists. The great majority of colleges present no formal printed statement showing their resources, income, and expenditure. On the other hand, the stronger universities publish reports of their treasurers showing in great detail all items of income and expenditure. Some of these reports are so minute that it is difficult to extract from them the significant items of income and of expense in which the public, and particularly students of education, are interested. It is probably impossible, and perhaps undesirable, to undertake to secure among institutions of learning an absolutely uniform system of bookkeeping and of financial reports. Reports which have for a long time been prepared in accordance with a fixed routine could not easily be changed, and officials in charge of large endowments would probably not be willing to make changes.

I venture to suggest, however, that the matters in which the public is interested and which are needed in the study of educational administration can all be presented in simple form in an ordinary balance sheet, if only the items in the balance are made the same so that the results are comparable. The information in which the public is interested is not to be found in the minute specification of sources of income and expense, but rather in the grouping of the essential matters of income and expenditure which enter into the support and administration of an institution of learning. With regard to endowment the public desires to know how much the total is, the general method of its investment, and the amount of income available for educational purposes. With regard to income it is particularly concerned in knowing both the amount and the sources from which it comes: how much is from endowment, how much from student fees, and how much from state or denominational support. It is also interested to know whether there are any charges against this income due to interest on debts.

Similarly, there are certain fundamental and important items of expense in which the public is interested and which it would be glad to examine, if this could be done without going through pages of figures and if the results were comparable with those of other institutions.

The primary reason for the existence of a college is to teach, and the fundamental question which the public desires to know is how the income is spent with relation to teaching: how much goes into administration, what part is used in paying the salaries of teachers of various grades, what proportion goes to maintain libraries and laboratories, how much is expended in the up-keep of the physical plant, what is spent in advertising (for even the oldest and most famous of American universities feel obliged to spend a greater or less sum each year in advertising), and the cost of the pay of stenographers, janitors, and the large army of non-professional

employees which in a great organization seems so necessary and which eats up so large a share of the income. It is these more simple and fundamental items of expense which the public desires most to know and which would be of great value in educational administration, if only they were made up in the same way in all institutions so that they might safely be compared.

Institutions of learning have been most willing to cooperate with the Foundation by answering questions and filling blanks which in many cases required care and time. I venture to suggest that if the financial officers of colleges and universities will include in their reports an annual exhibit and balance made up in accordance with the following forms, it will answer most inquiries of this nature, whether from the Foundation or other source, and will further serve a real purpose by making public information from all institutions which is easily got at, trustworthy and comparable.

A word may be said as to the most convenient date for the beginning of the college fiscal year. An examination into the treasurers' reports of one hundred institutions, these being largely the institutions on the accepted list and the state universities, shows that the fiscal year beginning with July 1 most frequently occurs; thirty-six out of the hundred count the fiscal year from July 1 to June 30. The following tabulation gives the exact variation:

January 1 to December	30- 7	July	15 to July	14-1
April 1 to March	31- 1	August	1 to July	31-9
April 15 to April	14- 1	August	15 to August	14-1
May 1 to April	30- 6	September	1 to August	31-6
May 10 to May	9- 1	October	1 to September	30-5
June 1 to May	31-21	November	1 to October	31-1
June 10 to June	9- 1	November	15 to November	14-1
June 15 to June	14- 1	December	1 to November	30-1
July 1 to June	30-36			

On the Pacific coast certain seasonal and industrial conditions operate to place the beginning of the college year at a different date from that commonly in use throughout the United States, the year at Berkeley and Stanford beginning late in August. Strict uniformity in this respect is probably attainable, although not of very great importance. It would seem from the data given above, that institutions generally could make the fiscal year begin July 1 without serious inconvenience.

The following exhibit sheets for the income-bearing resources and income accounts and for the various expense accounts are here given as further suggestions toward uniformity in financial reports. Such forms will, of course, need to be adjusted to the needs of each institution, but, as stated above, some such simple device will give readily the items in which the public is usually interested, and, if generally adopted, will lead the administrators of colleges and universities to a more careful study of the financial administration of their own institutions in comparison with that of other institutions. These blanks may be had by application to the Carnegie Foundation.

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Exhibit I

INCOME-PRODUCING RESOURCES AT END OF FISCAL YEAR ENDING.....19....

- (a) Real Estate, productive, assessed value*
- (b) Mortgages on real estate
- (c) Bonds, cost value
- (d) Stocks, cost value
- (e) Notes, cost value
- (f) Cash in Banks and Trust Companies

Exhibit II

INCOME ACCOUNT FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING.....19....

1. FROM ENDOWMENT

- (a) Income from real estate, less taxes
- (b) Income from mortgages
- (c) Income from bonds
- (d) Income from stocks
- (e) Income from notes
- (f) Income from funds in banks and trust companies

2. FROM REGULAR TUITIONS

- (a) Graduate College
- (b) Undergraduate College
- (c) School of Applied Science
- (d) School of Agriculture
- (e) Theological School
- (f) School of Medicine
- (g) School of Dentistry
- (h) School of Pharmacy
- (i) School of Law
- (j) Normal Course
- (k) Commercial Course
- (l) School of Music

3. FROM STUDENT FEES FOR LIBRARIES, LABORATORIES, DRESSES, ETC.

- (a) Graduate College
 - (b) Undergraduate College
 - (c) School of Applied Science
 - (d) School of Agriculture
- etc.

* Real estate used for campus, purposes of instruction, or for dormitories is not included.

EXHIBIT II (continued)

4. NET INCOME FROM DORMITORIES
5. FROM SALE OF SUPPLIES, CHEMICALS, LABORATORY MATERIALS, ETC.*
6. NET INCOME FROM DINING HALLS
7. FROM FIXED TAXATION
8. FROM DIRECT APPROPRIATION OF LEGISLATURE
9. FROM GIFTS OF INDIVIDUALS FOR CURRENT EXPENSES
Total Income for Current Use for Year ending.....19.....
Interest on Debt for same Year
NET INCOME AVAILABLE

Exhibit III

EXPENSE ACCOUNT FOR FISCAL YEAR ENDING.....19.....

1. ADMINISTRATION
(a) Salaries of permanent officers who are not teachers †
(b) Salaries of stenographers and assistants
(c) Expense of administrative offices, furniture, postage, etc.
2. TEACHING ‡
(a) Undistributed
(b) Graduate College
(c) Undergraduate College
(d) School of Applied Science
(e) School of Agriculture
(f) Theological School
(g) School of Medicine
(h) School of Dentistry
(Each department in detail)

* Exclusive of student fees for laboratories.

† When an executive officer teaches part time charge proportional part of the expense to teaching.

‡ When an officer has a house include estimated rental in reckoning his salary.

EXHIBIT III (continued)

3. ACCESSORIES TO TEACHING
(a) Pay of librarians
(b) Pay of clerks
(c) Pay of stenographers
(d) Pay of mechanics
(e) Pay of laborers
4. PUBLICATION EXPENSES
5. APPROPRIATIONS FOR CURRENT PURCHASES *
(a) For Library
(b) For Department of English
(c) For Department of Mathematics
<i>(Each department in detail)</i>
6. MAINTENANCE OF PHYSICAL PLANT
(a) Pay of janitor, engineers, laborers, carpenters, etc.
(b) Cost of annual repairs
(c) Special and unusual repairs
(d) Fuel, lighting, and heating
7. EXPENSE OF ENTERTAINMENTS, PUBLIC FUNCTIONS, ETC.
8. EXPENSE FOR TRAVELING AND DELEGATES
9. EXPENSE OF PRIZES AND SCHOLARSHIPS
10. INSURANCE
11. ADVERTISING
12. DEPRECIATIONS
13. MISCELLANEOUS EXPENSES
TOTAL EXPENDITURES FOR YEAR

* Departmental appropriations are intended to cover the annual sum given to different departments for purchase of books, apparatus, thesis work, laboratory supplies, etc.

TEACHERS' INSURANCE

MANY inquiries reach the executive officers of the Foundation as to the possibility of extending the benefits of the retiring allowance system so as to secure to teachers at least small retiring allowances after ten, fifteen, or twenty years of service. Some pathetic cases have arisen in which professors have died after a service of twenty years, leaving widows in destitute circumstances who under the rules as they now stand have no claim to a pension. It is to be noted that such a claim only accrues when the husband at the time of his death has earned by his service the right to a retiring salary.

In answer to such inquiries it may be said that wherever the limit is placed those whose cases do not fall within the limit assigned will have a similar reason for dissatisfaction. The only course open in the administration of the Foundation is to administer impartially the rules agreed upon. Whether the resources of the Foundation will allow later some further extension of provisions cannot at this moment be decided. That matter must await the experience of the next few years in order to ascertain what the practice of teachers in availing themselves of retiring allowances will be; this will determine the cost of the retiring allowance system and ultimately will fix the limit to which its benefits may be extended.

The cases which have come to the attention of the executive committee seem, however, to indicate that among teachers there is a very general neglect of the ordinary precautions with regard to life insurance. In some cases teachers are unable to secure insurance on account of physical disabilities; but even in the case of healthy men comparatively few carry insurance in proportion to their income.

I venture to call attention to the fact that a teacher who has in anticipation the benefits of a pension system for himself and his wife at the end of twenty or twenty-five years may secure additional straight life insurance for this interval at lower rates than ordinary life policies, and can then afford to drop it, once he has earned the right to a retiring allowance, if its longer maintenance is a burden. The life insurance companies offer such limited insurance in two forms, term insurance and yearly renewable insurance. Under the first a man may insure for a definite limited term, as 10 or 20 years. The difference in expense between such limited insurance and the ordinary life policy is indicated below. The premiums are in each case for \$1000 of insurance.

<i>Age</i>	<i>Annual Premium on 20 Year Term Policy</i>	<i>Annual Premium on Ordinary Life Policy</i>
30	\$14.11	\$24.38
35	16.24	28.11
40	19.76	33.01
45	25.52	39.55
50	34.73	48.48
55	48.71	60.72
60	68.63	77.69

These figures will vary slightly in the different companies.

The other form of insurance is known as the yearly renewable term policy, offered by a few companies only. Under this policy a man who insures at the age of 30, for example, pays a premium of \$12.59 for one year's insurance. At the expiration of that year he has the option, within thirty days of the anniversary of the policy, to renew the contract by paying the premium as for age 31, amounting to \$12.77. This privilege of renewal continues under the terms of the policy at the increasing rate corresponding to the age of the insured until the age of 64 is reached. After that age the policy must terminate, or the insured may exchange his policy for the ordinary life contract at the age of 65 and pay premium as of age 65. The cost per thousand of insurance in such a renewable policy is as follows:

<i>Age</i>	<i>Annual Premium Yearly Renewable Policy</i>	<i>Value of the Net Life Risk (American Mortality Tables)</i>
30	\$12.59	\$ 8.14
35	13.65	8.65
40	15.22	9.46
45	17.59	10.79
50	21.67	13.31
55	28.63	17.94
60	39.95	25.79
64	53.77	35.63

As a matter of interest I have added in the last column of the table given above the value of the life risk as determined by the American mortality tables. In other words, at the age of 30 the actual cost of the risk of insuring a life for one year is \$8.14. This is what the insured buys. The figures in the first column indicate what the company charges for this commodity. The difference between the two is the load due to administration, salaries, advertising, profit and loss, and all other expenses involved in the conduct of the business.

In general it may be said that any teacher whose physical condition is such that he can buy insurance may protect his family by buying a straight limited life insurance at moderate cost during the earlier years of his service and until his right in the retiring allowance system has been earned. The value of straight life insurance has been somewhat obscured in recent years by the exaggerated claims of life insurance companies in the matter of endowment policies. The wide margin between the promises of the companies in such policies and the actual amounts realized at their maturity has also operated to create suspicion of all insurance.

Neither the vagaries of the life insurance companies nor the representations of their agents ought to obscure the advantages of straight life insurance, nor ought the establishment of a system of retiring allowances, contingent on service, to weaken in any respect the obligation to make reasonable provision against the contingencies of life.

THE ADMISSION OF TAX-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

DURING the two years of the Foundation's administration no problem has been more constantly before the trustees than the question whether colleges and universities supported and controlled by the state should be admitted to the accepted list and share in the benefits of the retiring allowance system.

The National Association of State Universities and the Association of Land-Grant Colleges very soon after the establishment of the Foundation made formal application for admission and gave the reasons which, in the judgment of those representing these associations, justified such action.

It was recognized by the trustees from the beginning that there were two sides to the question. On the ground of established public policy it seemed altogether desirable that retiring allowances should be established in tax-supported colleges and universities by the states which governed and supported them. Such action seems also more in accord with the dignity and power of a great commonwealth.

On the other hand, when one considers the interests of education the argument for a single uniform system of retiring allowances in all colleges is a very strong one. From the standpoint of educational unity and coherence it would manifestly be a misfortune to divide the colleges and universities of the country into two groups separated by the line of state support. All colleges and universities, whether supported by taxation or by endowment or by tuitions, are public institutions. It has been a misfortune in the past that many colleges have remained isolated enterprises unrelated to the general educational system of the country. It is most desirable that all colleges and universities recognize their common obligation to the educational interests of the state and of the nation. There are no private colleges. An interchange of teachers between all colleges without regard to their method of support or governance is in the interest of true education, and nothing would go farther to promote this than a uniform system of retiring allowances available on the same terms to teachers in all colleges and universities maintaining fair academic standards.

One argument frequently urged against the acceptance of retiring allowances from the Carnegie Foundation by professors in state colleges seems to arise out of lack of familiarity with the method by which the business of the Foundation is conducted. I refer to the objection that the receipt by a state professor of his salary from the state and his retiring allowance from the Carnegie Foundation will result in a divided allegiance.

If this argument had weight it would apply no less to institutions which are not supported by taxation than to those which are. As a matter of fact the relations of the Carnegie Foundation with all accepted colleges are so planned as to avoid any possibility of a divided allegiance as between the college and the Foundation. Once a college has been admitted to the privileges of the retiring allowance system, its professors receive their retiring allowances through the college exactly as they receive

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THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM IN TAX-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

It is clear that the administration of the endowment provided for retiring allowances in state institutions will not be a simple matter. A number of considerations enter which the trustees will need to consider with care, but of these none is more important or complicated than the question of academic standards. During the last few years the curricula of high schools and of colleges have been undergoing great changes, and the process has been one of growth, not accident. But this growth in educational centres, such as the state universities afford, has in many instances been sectional, not national. States in different sections of the country have maintained universities of various standards. In some instances, for example, boys are taken into the freshman class after a scant two years of high school work; in others, no students are admitted who have not completed a four-year high school course, or its equivalent. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that each of these universities has adapted itself along lines of least resistance to its own educational environment, irrespective of any national conception of secondary and of higher education.

The differences in standards which we find, however, not alone among the state universities, but among the other colleges and universities in this country, are not surprising when we consider the development of these institutions. Since about 1870 the most powerful factor in educational processes has been the attempt to equalize studies. In this interval we have seen the old humanistic curricula give way to a demand for manual and industrial subjects; the undergraduate has been given more personal responsibility for the selection of his college studies; and highly specialized laboratories, and libraries filled with original sources of philosophy, literature, and history, are a part of each large college or university. The elective system has grown up with rapidity and is still in process of development. But in this growth the old adjustment between secondary education and higher education has not kept pace, and we find as a result confusion in both fields.

In the colonial period a boy took up college preparatory studies only for the purpose of going to college; the parish minister was usually his teacher. The colleges of that time held a common standard of academic training for admission,—Latin, Greek, and a little arithmetic. The parish teacher knew exactly the amount of “culture” which his pupil should attain before going to college. But as the tendency to a continually widening view of education developed, the articulation between secondary education and college became less evident. The phrases “preparation for college” and “preparation for life” indicate the doubt whether our former curricula were adapted to the needs of public life; and they imply doubt, also, in regard to the value and the dignity of various courses.

The state universities have clearly recognized that they must be a part of their respective state educational systems and that, as such, they belong to a continuous

system reaching from the grammar school to the highest stage. Adjusted in this way, therefore, any changes which they may make in their standards affect not only themselves, but the high schools with which they are cooperating. A large readjustment is not a simple matter. The question of first consideration now is: Where shall a line be drawn beyond which the Foundation will not accept tax-supported institutions? This question has already been urgently brought to the attention of officers of the Foundation by the representatives of state institutions, who are anxious to know just what institutions are to be considered eligible.

It is clear that the Foundation cannot include other institutions than colleges, universities, and technical schools of collegiate rank. Normal schools and the various other professional schools established by the different states, even when they have received the power to grant academic degrees, are not institutions within the scope of the Foundation.

In the case of the universities and of the few state technical schools which are clearly of collegiate rank, or which approximate this rank, the line, in my judgment, is well defined: these two groups of institutions ought clearly to be of college grade and their admission should, of course, await compliance with the standards which the Foundation has adopted.

The case of the agricultural and mechanical colleges and other technical colleges is a complicated one. Many of these institutions are of low grade. It is not always clear whether the true place of the institution is in secondary or in college education. A large part of the work done by agricultural colleges certainly does not require a high school course as a prerequisite.

The first consideration which confronts those who administer the state colleges is the clear determination of the exact purpose which those colleges are to serve. The next consideration is the right correlation of the institution as so conceived to the general educational system of the state.

I am quite sure that those who represent state colleges should make clear to the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation their own solution of these two questions before they ought to be included within the scope of the Foundation's system of retiring allowances, and that those who direct these colleges should also make evident the sources whence secondary education is to be furnished. It is not enough for a state institution to assume fourteen units as its standard of admission. Such an institution must make clear to its own constituents and to the Foundation whence the preparation for this standard is to come. I have endeavored to ascertain by correspondence with the presidents and professors of state universities and land-grant colleges in regions where college standards of admission are generally below fourteen units, the standards for admission which could be honestly and fairly enforced in their states. The results have been interesting and show differences in point of view. First, there is a group of educators who feel that the time has not yet arrived for the Carnegie Foundation to require fourteen units from institutions in the southern states, but

that these institutions should be helped along the path of additional requirements with the aim of making upon them the full demand some years hence. The second group of educators, equally conversant with conditions in their section, express the opinion that what the south needs is to feel the necessity of a thorough education for its boys and girls; that as soon as the southern people realize the necessity of this kind of education, they will secure it for their children; and that the best way to do this is to ask of the colleges and universities in the south the same kind of efficiency that is asked of institutions in other parts of the Union.

From those who would not have more than ten or twelve units required at present the following expressions have been taken:

President Abercrombie of the University of Alabama writes that at present not more than ten units can be asked of nine tenths of the high schools of Alabama. He therefore thinks that "a requirement of ten units, with the agreement that these be raised in from three to five years to the full fourteen, would be a far better arrangement than the immediate enforcement of the full fourteen units." Professor Doster, associate professor of secondary education, also favors this plan, saying that "in Alabama it will be at least four years before the colleges can reap the benefits of the present high school movement, and any attempt on the part of the colleges to raise suddenly their entrance requirements would prove disastrous."

President Thach of the Alabama Polytechnic Institute estimates that "it will take ten years before any very appreciable effect can be realized" from the new county high school system. He is therefore in favor of the Foundation requiring only nine or ten units at present and granting "six or eight years for all of the colleges to reach the maximum number of fourteen units."

President Tillman of the University of Arkansas says: "In this state the high school system is not yet established so as to be able in any large number of schools to give to students training equal to the fourteen units required by the Carnegie Foundation. . . . Next year we will require twelve units. . . . We can safely promise, I think, the enforcement of the full fourteen units within four or five years, . . . and time should be allowed our institution to raise our entrance requirements to meet the standard adopted by the Foundation."

President Harter of Delaware College writes that "of course every one must confess that the trustees have done wisely in fixing the standard at fourteen units and this has been the greatest help to us in building up the grade of southern institutions. . . . I feel sure that in two years more we shall be able to require fourteen units for admission to a regular course. I believe that if the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation would deem it wise and proper to extend the provisions of this great trust so as to include institutions which are honestly striving to hold up their standard of education upon condition that they should, within a reasonable time, react upon the public high schools so that they would give the necessary fitting, it would be a deserved encouragement."

Dr. Yocum, professor of education at the State University of Florida, advocates the admission of institutions "on the basis of ten units, accompanied with a pledge to raise the entrance requirements to fourteen units within a reasonable time." "There is still a gap between the work of most of the high schools and the requirements of the college, though the gap is closing. To insist on fourteen units at once would make it impossible to secure the articulation which is desired. It would become necessary to establish a two or three years' preparatory course for the university. In four or six years, however, the standard of fourteen units could easily be adopted. The result of a gradual raising of the standard would be beneficial all around."

President Matheson of the Georgia School of Technology writes: "The present requirements of fourteen units . . . practically debar all southern institutions from the benefits of the Foundation at the very time that these institutions need the most encouragement. With very few exceptions, the high schools are in no condition of development that will authorize them to supply fourteen units. The southern colleges are in no position to require fourteen units, and will not be for several years to come. Acceptance, therefore, of said units, in the great majority of cases, will result in unintentional dishonesty. We need your encouragement, and if you will set a standard of ten units, with an increase say to twelve units in two years, and fourteen units in perhaps four years, the southern colleges will eagerly, earnestly, and honestly respond, and the results will be much more satisfactory than those obtained by the adoption of a paper standard which is not enforced."

Professor Weber of the Louisiana State Board of Education says: "There is no secondary school in Louisiana" giving the equivalent of fourteen units. "There is no one more anxious than I to meet the fourteen-unit standard, but I do not believe in attempting the honestly impossible. Our present hardship is largely due to institutions admitting pupils long before high school graduation."

Professor Bondurant, chairman of the committee on affiliated schools and entrance requirements at the University of Mississippi, believes that "if the fourteen-unit standard were enforced immediately it would create the temptation to which you refer, *viz.*, the introduction of a paper standard. On the ten-unit requirement the large majority of our students could be admitted now without condition. In from four to six years if the high schools of this state continue to advance as they have done in recent years (and that they will I think there can be no reasonable doubt), the majority of students coming to us may be admitted to the freshman class without conditions on the fourteen-unit standard."

Acting President Moore of the University of South Carolina writes: "As you well know, efforts to raise standards too rapidly have resulted in dishonest practice. After careful consideration of what may be expected of the high schools of South Carolina, I am convinced that with the session of 1909 ten units may reasonably be demanded, and that by 1913 the schools of this state should be able to

furnish the full fourteen units required by the Carnegie Foundation." The adoption of such a requirement for admission "would not only remove the temptation which now exists to establish paper standards, but would be an encouragement and incentive to institutions honestly to raise their standards and at the same time give great impetus to the movement for the improvement of high schools."

Professor Hand, professor of secondary education in the university, agreed with the acting president that fourteen units should not be required for the next five years, but he added: "Since a large number of people think the chief function of the high school is to prepare for college, and the college is ready to take the pupil before he gets even through the high school, many people are satisfied with the present high school situation. Whenever the colleges firmly demand better preparation and honestly enforce their requirements they will soon find a response."

President Ayres of the University of Tennessee says: "I feel very strongly that the time has not yet come in most of the southern states for the enforcement of a fourteen-point standard of admission to colleges. The reason for this condition is that there are extremely few preparatory schools in the south, public or private, that have properly equipped and manned laboratories for work in physics, chemistry, or biology, and comparatively few schools that are prepared to do satisfactory work in German or French. For these reasons the student who has not done full preparatory work in Latin, at least, will almost certainly be lacking in the fourteen points of preparation. In Tennessee there are only four or five public high schools to my knowledge that are prepared to offer a genuine fourteen-point preparation," and not a single private preparatory school that can offer a "genuine fourteen-point preparation to a student not studying Greek and far less to a student studying neither Latin nor Greek. It is, however, evident that an increasing number of students will be knocking at the college doors who have not studied Greek and whose study of Latin has been only partial or entirely lacking, and yet those students must be admitted to such scientific and technical courses as they can pursue with profit."

President Ayres said that the important thing is first "to interpret the units absolutely as given in your first annual report," that is, not to "give a full unit credit to courses in physics, chemistry, and biology unless they have been taught by laboratory methods in a properly equipped school laboratory and by a man properly trained in scientific work," and to be "equally careful in giving credit for modern languages and other subjects which I have found are not usually taught with the same thoroughness as Latin, Greek, and mathematics." He hoped that the state universities would "be admitted to the benefits of the Foundation without the long delay that must result if an immediate enforcement of the fourteen-unit requirement be made a condition of their acceptance."

President Harrington of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas says: "It seems to me that it would be better to make a requirement of not more than ten units for the present with the agreement that these be raised in a stated time

to the full fourteen. It would be difficult for the average high school of the state to conform to even a ten-unit standard."

Professor Payne, professor of education at the University of Virginia, favors a present requirement of ten units with a promise of increasing the demand to fourteen units in four or six years. President Barringer of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute also favors the "proposition to reduce the demand for the present to ten units, making six or eight of these ten units English, mathematics, and history. You will be doing a great thing for the south if you can put us now on a ten or twelve unit basis and set a reasonable time in which you will reach fourteen units; but in doing this, try and demand, first, units which are essential to the general welfare of the average student."

On the other side of the argument President Patterson of the State University of Kentucky writes: "I doubt the propriety of relaxing the rule which you have already established. I should be inclined to allow the standard to remain for Kentucky as you have adopted it, and to endeavor to stimulate the schools to come up to the standard as rapidly as possible, granting meanwhile to the colleges and universities a discretionary margin not too wide in the acceptance of the results furnished them by the high schools. My own belief is that within two years all the best high schools in Kentucky will have come up to the standard."

President Hinitt of the Central University of Kentucky agrees with President Patterson. He says: "I have a profound conviction that one function of the college is that of leadership, and that the inspiration to educational development must come from above and not from below. I would not retreat from our standard in Kentucky, believing that such a step would be detrimental to the whole educational interests of the state. The fourteen-unit standard ought to be maintained in Kentucky. I believe that in every southern state, where there is so much inertia to overcome, the same standard will probably produce the same results. There is a positive advantage in a standard that will make it necessary for every college president and professor in the south to become an active missionary for public school development. The standard is not impossible, in my judgment, even in a backward state. There may be fewer students in college for a while, . . . but the whole educational system of the commonwealth will be stimulated. And I know of no stimulus so powerful and effective as the maintenance of the standard for all alike by the Carnegie Foundation."

Chancellor Kirkland of Vanderbilt University likewise says: "My opinion is that it would be disastrous for the Carnegie Foundation to accept a lower standard for the south than for other sections. If you allow ten units now, you will find a strong effort made to postpone the day of advancement to fourteen units. The question of enforcing your standard is a difficult one and one that will not be solved by agreeing to a low standard. It is far better, in my judgment, to adhere to one standard uniform for all sections of the country. To be sure, the method of administration may require some concessions."

President Venable of the University of North Carolina says: "Our experience is that the pull upward must come from the university and that it is best for the university to keep a little ahead of the average school until we can get the whole system upon a satisfactory basis. I am strongly of the opinion that it would not help us for you to lower your requirements for this state. It will serve to discourage the increasing number of schools which have pulled up to the higher requirements and will give excuse for the others to go slow in their improvement."

Professor Henderson, visitor of schools for the University of Texas, writes: "I think that it would be unwise for this state to take a backward step. I am personally of the opinion that it would not be wise for the Carnegie Foundation to adopt a ten-unit basis. I believe that a twelve-unit basis would be the very lowest standard conducive to the interests of the high schools of this state and of the south. To establish low entrance requirements, in my judgment, would contribute little to the honesty of institutions. On the other hand, it would subtract much from the efficiency of higher institutions, and, above all, would take away a great stimulus to the betterment of the high schools."

President Blackman of Rollins College says: "I would say that in my judgment the academic conditions hitherto and at present maintained by the Carnegie Foundation should not be relaxed so far as the state of Florida is concerned. In many high schools the work is not well done, but this is the fault, not of the course of study, but of indifferent teachers and undeveloped public sentiment. The unfortunate lowering of the college standards will be sooner corrected if the Carnegie Foundation steadfastly maintains here the conditions which it imposes elsewhere."

President Sledd of the University of the State of Florida sent a letter from which the following extracts are taken: "I do not believe that the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation should formally or officially adjust their requirements to local educational conditions or standards. My limited experience leads me to the belief that one of our greatest needs is a standard that can neither be dodged nor persuaded into compromise. At present it is a credit to an institution to have its work recognized by your Foundation, but that credit would be much impaired should the Foundation try to adjust its standard to the exigencies of local conditions. If I may presume to speak for one of the most insignificant of our southern schools, I venture the opinion that educationally it is better not to be recognized on your present satisfactory standard than to be recognized on a standard lowered to meet our case; and I should infinitely prefer to see a rigid adherence to your standard rather than a compromise to gratify my vanity or accommodate my imaginary needs. You allude to the possible 'adoption of a paper standard which is not enforced.' This is certainly a crying evil; but you will not overcome the difficulty by lowering your standard, but will seem rather, if you will pardon my saying it, willing to compromise with certain conditions, which is precisely the comfort these institutions lay to their misguided souls. I am in fact afraid that a reduction of this standard would put temptation in the

way of more schools to follow the devious and dishonest ways of pretense. The most of our southern schools cannot reasonably undertake 'the immediate enforcement of full fourteen units.' But if you should make 'a requirement of ten or twelve units for the present, with the agreement that these be raised in a stated time to the full fourteen units,' not a few would be gifted with enough optimism and prophetic foresight to undertake the enterprise. In my judgment, scarcely any of our southern state institutions can frankly and fairly agree in any definitely stated time to keep their requirements to your full and proper standard. . . . We should not presume for an instant to forecast our educational progress so definitely as to make any contractual agreement to follow any specified entrance requirements at any specified time in the future, near or remote; and I sincerely hope that you will not subject us to the temptation to make certain promises for future fulfilment which we cannot certainly see our ability to keep. If you should recognize our institution on the promise that five years hence, or ten years hence, they would enforce your standards, the institution entering into that agreement would obligate itself to do something that it could not possibly foresee. Every benefit it received from you, even recognition, would strengthen that obligation; and if at the end of that time, for reasons of convenience, political expediency, educational failure, or change of administration, the institution found itself in a position where it could not fulfil its agreement, it would either repudiate its contract, or would bring precisely the same pressure to bear upon the Foundation which is now being brought to bear to make it recognize the situation, and adjust itself to the circumstances,—and the last state of that man would be worse than the first. I could not venture to predict how long it must be before fourteen units could be required. We will come to the fourteen units, not when it is convenient, but as soon as it is possible; and speaking for this institution, I sincerely hope that you will not let our local conditions cause you to compromise your standards in the slightest degree. *We need your standard* more than we need your classification or recognition."

I have quoted from the voluminous correspondence in this matter at some length in order that the trustees may appreciate the difficulties involved in the administration of this fund in states where colleges and high schools have hitherto been backward. Notwithstanding the divergence of the views here expressed and the difficulties involved in the actual administration of the work, there is general agreement that the standard adopted by the Foundation as requisite for college entrance is reasonable and that all colleges ought in due time to come to it. The difference of opinion concerns the period within which the standard can be attained. The movement for good high schools now going forward in the south is one of the most encouraging evidences of our national progress. Within a short time competent teachers for primary and secondary education will be available in these states. In this movement the colleges can help most directly by the maintenance of fair and honest entrance requirements. If in the enforcement of such standards the college attendance is cut down, no one can

question that the true interests of education and of the whole people of the respective states will be served. The development of the state systems of education is in the hands of those who direct education in the various states and will be carried out by them. The problem which confronts the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation is the administration of the retiring allowance system in such manner as wisely to contribute to this development. The following considerations seem to me to furnish the basis from which our administration must proceed.

1. The purpose of the Carnegie Foundation is to further as far as possible the cause of educational unity. It cannot, therefore, have one standard for college entrance in New York and Iowa and another in North Carolina and Texas. Under any conception of educational organization the college should rest on the standard high school, and when that standard is uniform through the nation we may hope to move the point of admission to college up or down as may seem wise. The Foundation must therefore abide, as it seems to me, by the standard hitherto adopted and approved.

2. On the other hand a tax-supported institution must relate itself to the educational system of its state, and the adoption of entrance requirements out of reach of the best secondary schools is impossible.

The practical difficulty has come in the fact that the colleges have in many cases been willing to adapt their entrance requirements to the weak secondary schools, not to the good secondary schools. This is a matter which rests in the last analysis on the good sense and sincerity of the college authorities and the heads of the secondary schools. If the college complains that it cannot raise standards because there are no schools ready to fit students for such standards, and if the heads of secondary schools declare that they cannot conduct good high schools because the colleges admit students when half through the high school, and neither side deals with the situation, no progress is made. A fair coöperation will make clear the means for right advancement of standards. And in this matter the obligation for leadership is in the college. The most serious obstacle in the past has been the ever present competition for numbers which is the greatest source of demoralization in all American education.

3. In the progress toward the attainment of the full college standards, reasonable entrance requirements honestly enforced are of far more consequence than higher requirements which are not lived up to. Educational righteousness begins in honesty and sincerity and no system of insincere requirements for admission can be considered as an educational gain. There is no method by which the Foundation can be sure of the impartial enforcement of the published entrance requirements of a given college except by a detailed examination of the actual practice in the admission of students, and this will be made in the case of institutions admitted to the accepted list.

4. No institution can afford to change its standards of admission and of college courses unless this change is justified by sound educational reasons and by the needs

of the people whom the institution is to serve. To change standards simply to secure retiring allowances for teachers would be most unjust, and would in the end prove futile.

While institutions cannot be admitted until their standards reach those which the Foundation has adopted, some method of administration can doubtless be found — either by the recognition of individual professors, or otherwise — under which the Foundation may cooperate with such institutions as are sincerely engaged in the effort to reach uniform college standards. This matter should receive the most careful consideration of the trustees to the end that the policy adopted may lend itself to the best interests of education in the whole nation.

On the following pages are given data concerning the state universities arranged in a manner similar to the data given for the accepted list. On page 79 is a map showing for the states of the Union and the provinces of the Dominion the geographical distribution of tax-supported colleges.

DATA CONCERNING

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	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			School of Agriculture			Theological School		
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA University, Alabama	1820	80	52	\$ 97,128	\$ 2,500	\$2,200	10.5	819	4						
UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA Tucson, Arizona	1885	13	28	65,243	10,000	1,811	15	70	4						
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS Fayetteville, Arkansas	1871	38	121	228,000		1,968	9.5 ¹	645	4	9.5	18	4			
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA Berkeley, California	1868	165	367	1,099,292	894,262	3,300	15	2358	4	15	132	4			
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO Boulder, Colorado	1876	53	117	180,000	310,000	2,180	15	840	4						
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF FLORIDA Gainesville, Florida	1905	14	16	40,250	1,000	1,515	9.9	69	4	8.3	2	4			
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA Athens, Georgia	1785	29	35	103,599 ²	6,795	2,244	11.8	344	4	11.5	34	4			
UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO Moscow, Idaho	1889	21	36	182,362		1,800	15	216	4	15	4	4			
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana, Illinois	1867	111	532	1,314,349	69,722	3,270	15	2412	4	15	486	4			
INDIANA UNIVERSITY Bloomington, Indiana	1820	103	141	215,704	33,714 ³	2,400	15	1774	4						
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA Iowa City, Iowa	1847	85	152	572,478		2,152	15	1364	4						
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS Lawrence, Kansas	1864	153	215	405,744		2,200	15	1435	4						
STATE UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Lexington, Kentucky	1880	30	50	93,557		2,000	13.5	468	4	13.5	40	2-4			
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY Baton Rouge, Louisiana															
UNIVERSITY OF MAINE Orono, Maine	1865	38	83	165,877		2,027	14	439	4	14	24	4			
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN Ann Arbor, Michigan	1837	149	324	1,119,230		3,000	15	3130	4						
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA Minneapolis, Minnesota	1868	181	317	637,718		2,750	14	2205	4	14	116	4			
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI University, Mississippi	1844	21	29	162,000	7,000	2,070	11	236	4						
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI Columbia, Missouri	1839	101	199	644,210		2,472	15	1724	4	15	328	4			
UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA Missoula, Montana	1893	13	24	123,144	250	1,866	15	268	4						
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA Lincoln, Nebraska	1869	136	218	485,526	1,000	2,214	14	1050	4	14 ⁴	1197	4			

¹ In 1909 the requirements will be 10.5 units.

² Does not include state appropriation of \$100,000 for Agricultural College building.

³ Special appropriation of Legislature.

⁴ Degree course.

⁵ Data not submitted.

STATE UNIVERSITIES

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School of Medicine			School of Dentistry			School of Pharmacy			School of Law			Normal Course			School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students Required to Offer 1 1/2 Units or More
Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course					
10.5	170	4				10.5	24	2	5	67	2								325		46	
4	175	4							0	55	2				9.5	28	4		661	Mech. Arts 28		
3 yrs. College	33	4	1 yrs. H. S.	69	3	3 yrs. H. S.	45	2 or 3	10	69	3				15	182		324	Mech. Arts 260 Commerce 177 Arts 180	2473		
15 ^a	52	4							15	83	3							37	126		922	
						0	15	2	3	75	2							3				
															15	28	4	3	323	187		
15	476	4	15	76	3	15 ⁷	259	2	15	186	3			15	72	4	208	555	Library Sch. 45	3811		
15	125	4							15	159	3							125			2005	
15 ^a	309	4	12	180	3	8	54	2-3	10	213	3			°	97		173	344	Nurses Tr. 57	1531		
1 yr. College	101	4				15 ¹¹	94	2-4	15	186	3			8	183	4	102	343			1615	
												2	18.5	182	1-3			29	264	Dom. Econ. 20		
						14	4	4	14	97	3							21	62	Forestry 38 Short Courses 47	647	
15 ¹⁰	472	4	11	163	3	15 ¹¹	101	2-4	12.4	791	3						125	1070			3565	
3 yrs. College	166	4	1 yrs. H. S.	176	3	7	99	2-3	14	436	3	3 yrs. College	32	2			95	1222	Chem. 68	2819		
9	17	4							°	58	2	11	4	4			21	209				
1 yr. College	65	4							16	237	3	15	294	4			151	508			1936	
															°	43	2-3	14		Biol. Station 9	258	
1 yr. College	127	4							14	183	3				°	493		130	258	Fine Arts 101	1931	

⁷ In 1910-1911 the requirements will be two years of college. ¹ For degree of Graduate in Pharmacy one year of high school is required.
⁸ In 1909 one year of college required; in 1910, two years of college. ⁹ No specific requirements stated.
¹⁰ In 1909 two years of college required. ¹¹ Degree course. ¹² In force, January, 1909.

DATA CONCERNING

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	Date of Founding	Number in Faculty	Number on Instructing Staff	Net Income for Fiscal Year	Gifts from Private Sources during Fiscal Year	Average Salary of Full Professors	Liberal Arts and Scientific Courses			School of Agriculture			Theological School	
							Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA Reno, Nevada.....	1889	25	34	\$52,982	\$169,000	\$2,350	12	143	4	12	1	4		
UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO Albuquerque, New Mexico.....	1889	14	18	32,000		1,525	15	54	4					
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA Chapel Hill, North Carolina.....	1789	49	89	150,023	500	1,947	15	537	4					
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA Grand Forks, North Dakota.....	1883	25	57	210,909	31,183	2,220	15	210	4					
OHIO UNIVERSITY Athens, Ohio.....	1804	20	42	123,200 ¹		1,977	12 ²	503	4					
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY Columbus, Ohio.....	1870	118	175	708,496	8,002	2,200	15	1567	4	12	214	4		
MIAMI UNIVERSITY Oxford, Ohio.....	1809	22	32	181,621 ³	66,815	2,190	12	345	4					
STATE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA Norman, Oklahoma.....	1892	25	36	119,812		1,633	15	249	4					
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON Eugene, Oregon.....	1876	36	83	138,200		1,900	14	409	4					
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA Columbia, South Carolina.....	1801	21	24	93,216		1,944	8 ⁴	180	4					
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA Vermillion, South Dakota.....	1882	28	44	85,836		1,546	14	235	4					
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE Knoxville, Tennessee.....	1794	61	94	155,655		2,200	11.5	284	4	7	24	4		
UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS Austin, Texas.....	1881	50	111	314,430		2,660	13.3	1282	4					
UNIVERSITY OF UTAH Salt Lake City, Utah.....	1850	33	67	158,000		2,162	15	410	4					
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA Charlottesville, Virginia.....	1819	49	99	209,623	325,000	3,155	11.5 ⁴	452	4					
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON Seattle, Washington.....	1881	49	80	202,000	25,000	2,000	14	1133	4					
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY Morgantown, West Virginia.....	1867	42	69	222,833 ⁵	400	2,025	12 ³	443	4		102	3-4		
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN Madison, Wisconsin.....	1848	142	354	1,168,133	2,200	2,970	14	2565	4	14	146	4		
UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING Laramie, Wyoming.....	1886	20	27	102,398	435	1,900	14.5	87	4	10.5	12	4		

¹ Includes special state appropriation of \$74,000. ² Estimated on preparatory course.
³ Includes special appropriation of \$72,168 for new buildings. ⁴ In 1909, 12 units will be required.
⁵ In 1900-1910 course will be extended to three years.
⁶ This does not include earnings of Experiment Station, amounting to \$10,000 or \$12,000 a year.

STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

School of Medicine	School of Dentistry		School of Pharmacy		School of Law		Normal Course		School of Music			Students in Graduate Courses	Students in Extension Courses	Students in Summer Session	Students in Other Courses	Students required to offer 14 Units or More		
	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Units required for Admission	Number of Students	Number of Years in Course							
							12	19	4									
4 yrs. H. S. ⁷	114	4		15	47	2	15	18	4			80				58		
16	20	2					80	2	15	94	4	6	271	Commercial 69		270		
							12 ⁸	150	2&4	°	298	4	6	678	Normal 150 Commercial 24			
			11 ⁸	68	2-4	13	188	3	15	26	4	60	218	425	Vet. Sc. 162 Dom. Econ. 94	1498		
							12	265	2 ¹⁰					558				
15	15	2-4		16 ⁸	51	2-4					15	208	4	3	124	357		
14	88	4					H. S.	98	3		°	110	4	9	25	579		
							°	35	2	7	58	2		12				
1 yr. Col. lege ¹¹	3	2 ¹¹					4 yrs. H. S.	56	3	14	6	1	°	25	4	6	Commercial 19	191
°	181	4	3 yrs. H. S.	46	3	7	17	2-4	°	49	2		5		Short Courses 198			
18.3 ⁷	199	4		6.5	48	2	18.3 ⁷	814	3					625	Nurses Tr. 30			
15 ¹²	30	2&4							4 yrs. H. S.	185	2-4		5	269		518		
3 yrs. H. S. ¹⁵	106	4					11.5 ¹⁴	230	2				38					
			14 ⁸	61	2-4		1 yr. Col. lege	128	2 ¹³	14	40	4		40	248	Forestry 10 Short Courses 42	1192	
12	88	4					12	118	2-4		°	170		282	Phys. Tr. 28 Fine Arts 18 Commercial 46			
14 ¹⁴	25	2		14 ⁸	32	2-4	3 yrs. Col. lege	133	3	14	73	4	14	77	4	230 908 428	Short Courses 534	2950
								14.5	25	4	°	12	4	16	6	42	Commercial 28 Vet. Sc. 2	53

⁷ In 1909-1910 one year of college required.

⁸ Degree course.

⁹ No specific requirements stated.

¹⁰ Certificate on completion of course.

¹¹ In 1909-1910 two years of college required.

¹² Pre-clinical course.

¹³ In 1909-1910 one year of college required; in 1910-1911 two years of college.

¹⁴ In addition, one year college course in physics, chemistry, and biology; in 1910-1911, 4 years high school and one year college course in physics, chemistry, and biology, with one language, preferably German.

¹⁵ In 1909-1910, 15 units will be required.

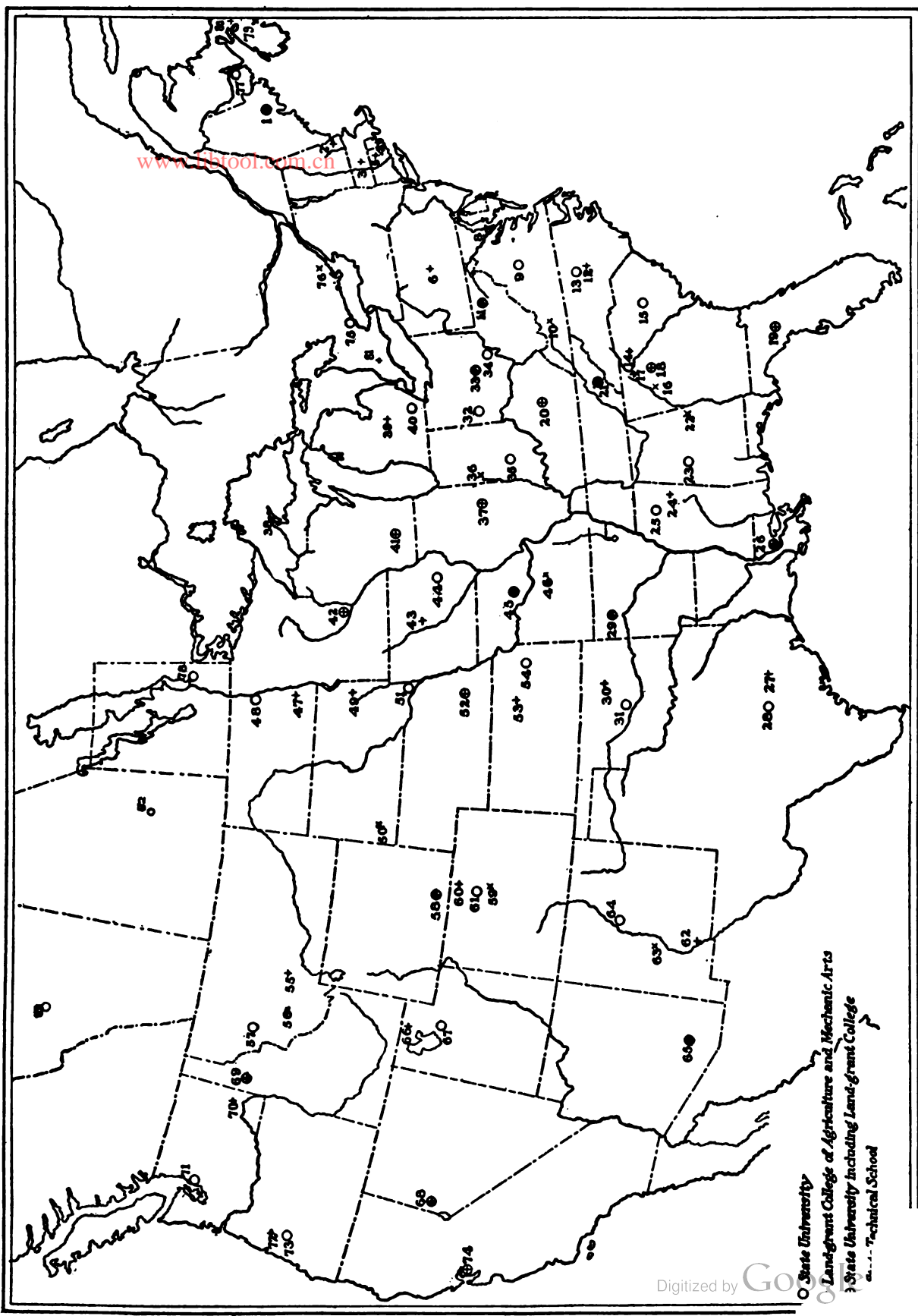
¹⁶ Pre-medical course.

¹⁷ Specials not separated from candidates for degree.

¹⁸ In 1909-1910 course will be extended to three years.

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STATE AND OF PROVINCIAL INSTITUTIONS

NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		WESTERN DIVISION		
1. University of Maine	26. Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College	55. Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	57. University of Montana	
2. New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	27. Agricultural and Mechanical College of [Texas]	56. Montana State School of Mines	58. University of Wyoming	
3. Massachusetts Agricultural College	28. University of Texas	57. University of Montana	59. Colorado School of Mines	
4. Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	29. University of Arkansas	60. State Agricultural College, Colorado	61. University of Colorado	
5. Connecticut Agricultural College	30. Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College	62. New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	63. New Mexico School of Mines	
6. Pennsylvania State College	31. State University of Oklahoma	64. University of New Mexico	65. University of Arizona	
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		66. Agricultural College of Utah	67. University of Utah	
7. Delaware College	32. Miami University, Ohio	68. University of Nevada	69. University of Idaho	
8. Maryland Agricultural College	33. Ohio State University	70. State College of Washington	71. University of Washington	
9. University of Virginia	34. Ohio University	72. Oregon State Agricultural College	73. University of Oregon	
10. Virginia Polytechnic Institute	35. Indiana University	74. University of California	DOMINION OF CANADA	
11. West Virginia University	36. Purdue University, Indiana	75. University of Toronto	76. School of Mining, Kingston	
12. North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	37. University of Illinois	77. University of New Brunswick	78. University of Manitoba	
13. University of North Carolina	38. Michigan College of Mines	79. Nova Scotia Technical College	80. Nova Scotia Agricultural College	
14. Clemson Agricultural College, South Carolina	39. Michigan State Agricultural College	81. Ontario Agricultural College	82. University of Saskatchewan	
15. University of South Carolina	40. University of Michigan	83. University of Alberta		
16. Georgia School of Technology	41. University of Wisconsin			
17. North Georgia Agricultural College	42. University of Minnesota			
18. University of Georgia	43. Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts			
19. University of the State of Florida	44. State University of Iowa			
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION		45. University of Missouri		
20. State University of Kentucky	46. State School of Mines, Missouri	47. North Dakota Agricultural College		
21. University of Tennessee	47. State University and School of Mines, North Dakota	48. State University and School of Mines, North Dakota		
22. Alabama Polytechnic Institute	49. South Dakota Agricultural College	49. South Dakota Agricultural College		
23. University of Alabama	50. South Dakota State School of Mines	50. South Dakota State School of Mines		
24. Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College	51. University of South Dakota	51. University of South Dakota		
25. University of Mississippi	52. University of Nebraska	52. University of Nebraska		
	53. Kansas State Agricultural College	53. Kansas State Agricultural College		
	54. University of Kansas	54. University of Kansas		



○ State University
○ Land-grant College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
○ State University including Land-grant College
○ Technical School

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF STATE AND OF PROVINCIAL INSTITUTIONS

NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION

1. University of Maine
2. New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
3. Massachusetts Agricultural College
4. Rhode Island College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
5. Connecticut Agricultural College
6. Pennsylvania State College

SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION

7. Delaware College
8. Maryland Agricultural College
9. University of Virginia
10. Virginia Polytechnic Institute
11. West Virginia University
12. North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
13. University of North Carolina
14. Clemson Agricultural College, South Carolina
15. University of South Carolina
16. Georgia School of Technology
17. North Georgia Agricultural College
18. University of Georgia
19. University of the State of Florida

SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION

20. State University of Kentucky
21. University of Tennessee
22. Alabama Polytechnic Institute
23. University of Alabama
24. Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College
25. University of Mississippi

26. Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College
27. Agricultural and Mechanical College of University of Texas [Texas

28. University of Arkansas
29. Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College
30. Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College
31. State University of Oklahoma

NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION

32. Miami University, Ohio
33. Ohio State University
34. Ohio University
35. Indiana University
36. Purdue University, Indiana
37. University of Illinois
38. Michigan College of Mines
39. Michigan State Agricultural College
40. University of Michigan
41. University of Wisconsin
42. University of Minnesota
43. Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
44. State University of Iowa
45. University of Missouri
46. State School of Mines, Missouri
47. North Dakota Agricultural College
48. State University and School of Mines, North Dakota
49. South Dakota Agricultural College
50. South Dakota State School of Mines
51. University of South Dakota
52. University of Nebraska
53. Kansas State Agricultural College
54. University of Kansas

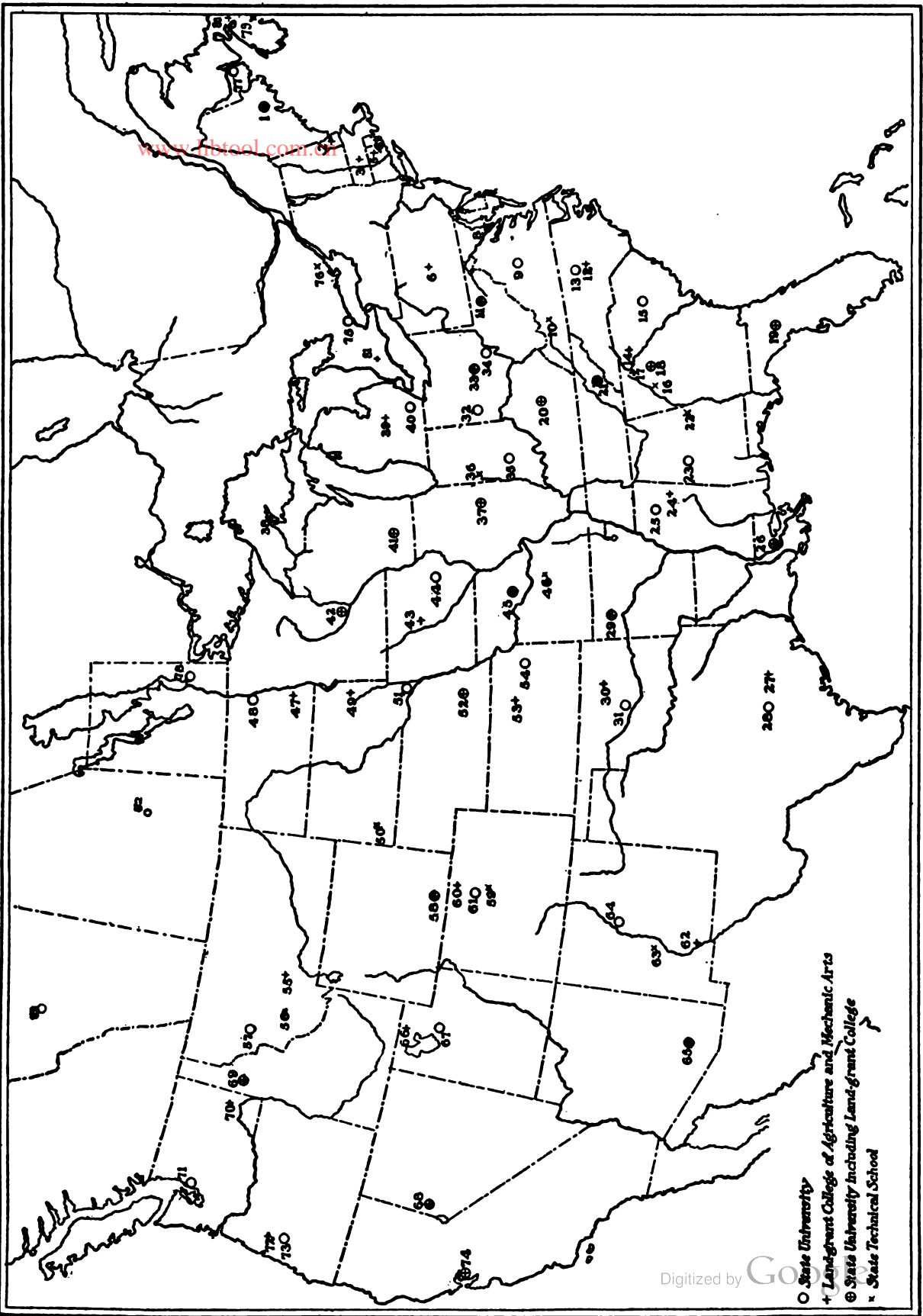
WESTERN DIVISION

55. Montana College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
56. Montana State School of Mines
57. University of Montana
58. University of Wyoming
59. Colorado School of Mines
60. State Agricultural College, Colorado
61. University of Colorado
62. New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
63. New Mexico School of Mines
64. University of New Mexico
65. University of Arizona
66. Agricultural College of Utah
67. University of Utah
68. University of Nevada
69. University of Idaho
70. State College of Washington
71. University of Washington
72. Oregon State Agricultural College
73. University of Oregon
74. University of California

DOMINION OF CANADA

75. University of Toronto
76. School of Mining, Kingston
77. University of New Brunswick
78. University of Manitoba
79. Nova Scotia Technical College
80. Nova Scotia Agricultural College
81. Ontario Agricultural College
82. University of Saskatchewan
83. University of Alberta

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- State University
- + Land-grant College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
- ⊙ State University including Land-grant College
- * State Technical School

THE STATE AS A UNIT IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

WHEN one studies the educational problems of so large a country as the United States or Canada, it is quickly evident that the political divisions into states or provinces have a direct bearing upon the question of educational administration. Both in the United States and in Canada education is in the hands of the states, not in the keeping of the federal government. And even where the federal government has made grants for education, as in the Morrill Act, the money so appropriated has been turned over to the states to be expended by them in the maintenance of colleges and experiment stations. Recognizing these divisions, the denominations have also followed state lines in the promotion of colleges. In both state and denominational promotion of colleges, local and personal considerations have been allowed to have in many cases too much play.

For example, the locations of the state university and of the state college of agriculture have in too many cases been determined upon political or local considerations. In some cases one section of the state has been given the state university, another the state college, and in some states, like Michigan and Colorado, three state colleges have been founded,—the state university, the state school of mines, and the college of agriculture and mechanic arts. These divisions have rarely been justified, and in nearly all cases they have led to political wire-pulling in the legislature in which the state university in one part of the state is played against the college of agriculture or the mining school in another part of the state in the securing of appropriations. Not only is this true, but duplications of work follow with endless rivalries. One of the most conspicuous of these cases is to be seen in the state of Iowa where the state university and the state college of agriculture and the mechanic arts have each built up large engineering departments. The state of Iowa is at the present time supporting two competing schools of engineering. Not content with this the state normal school has been allowed to start an undergraduate college and to confer academic degrees. On the three institutions the state of Iowa expended in the year 1907-8, \$1,196,754.

Nothing has been more striking in the development of the state universities and colleges than the general lack of appreciation of the value of a fitting environment in the upbuilding and development of a college or university. Such institutions have often been placed by the vote of the legislature in accordance with geographical or political considerations, without the slightest appreciation of the fact that the interests not only of education but of the people of the whole state were being sacrificed. In many cases these institutions have been founded in little villages near the geographic centre of the state without regard either to the possibilities of a university in or near a large city, or to the question of transportation facilities. For example, the University of Missouri and the University of Illinois, both in great and rich states, are in villages, and so situated that it is very difficult to reach them

from many parts of the state. Each of them conducts part of its professional instruction in a distant city. If the one had been originally placed in the suburbs of St. Louis, and the other in the immediate vicinity of Chicago, the interests of education and of the public would have been served.

Perhaps one of the most glaring cases is in the state of Colorado. Denver, the chief city of Colorado, is also its capital and the centre of its transportation system. It was the one obvious place in which the state university ought to have been situated, alike in the interest of the people of the whole state and of education itself. Instead, the state institution was split into three parts, and each of these located in a small and comparatively inaccessible place.

On the other hand some states have dealt with wise forethought, concentrating their efforts into the development of one great institution and placed this in a centre of population and transportation. The University of Wisconsin at Madison, the capital of the state and a city of refinement and beauty; the University of California at Berkeley, adjoining San Francisco; the University of Minnesota at Minneapolis, are examples of such solutions. It is worth much to a boy from a small town to live during his college years in touch with a great community like San Francisco or Minneapolis-St. Paul. The general opportunities for culture, refinement, and intercourse with men are far better in such places. In the long run, universities in isolated towns are apt to reach limits beyond which they cannot go and in many cases are compelled to conduct part of their work—for example, the professional schools of law and medicine—in cities.

The real question which a state should solve in founding a university or a college is: Where may the institution be so placed as to secure the best results for the education of those who are to attend it and to serve at the same time the interests of all the people of the state? To answer such a question intelligently one ought to consider other agencies of higher education in the state, the advantages of location, the presence of a large and cultured community, the ease and economy of transportation for the whole population.

A second consideration which the state ought not to ignore is the relation of the state college to the general system of education. Education in a state is really one thing, from the elementary grade to the graduate school of the university, and the college, whether it be under state control or under a self-perpetuating board, must in the long run relate itself to the system of public instruction. In this matter denominational colleges have been short-sighted. Those who control them have been slow to see that all colleges alike share this obligation to coördinate with the general system of instruction. State colleges, on the other hand, while more generally recognizing this obligation, have not always lent themselves to its fulfilment. Competing schools maintained by the same state have in some instances resulted. Good sense and educational patriotism will be needed to untangle some of these situations.

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POLITICAL INTERFERENCE IN STATE COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

SECURITY of position and freedom from sectarian or political restrictions form the surest tests of a true college or a true university. Such an institution is usually the product of experience. Men learn only by their mistakes that tolerance and freedom are the absolute requisites for the upbuilding of a true college. Most of the stronger state universities have had to go through the fire of both political and denominational partisanship before they reached that stage of growth in which freedom of speech and security of place were guaranteed to their teachers. Before this stage is reached the people of a whole state must be educated to the idea of intellectual freedom as the atmosphere in which truth grows. The attainment, therefore, of this stage of university growth marks generally a distinct step in the political and intellectual education of the people of the state. The progress made in this direction has been encouraging. Not many years have gone by since even in the best of the state colleges political and denominational "pull" was in constant evidence; and while in some states there is still much to be desired in these respects, the general progress is toward academic freedom and the elimination of politics from education.

During the past year two state universities have passed through experiences of a very trying nature,—the University of Wyoming, in which a president was dismissed, and the university of the new state of Oklahoma, in which the president and a number of professors were expelled.

The situation in Wyoming is typical of what has gone on in most states. Politics has been allowed to play a part in the control of the university—not so much in the actual nomination of professors (with a few exceptions), but in the matter of control of the university organization. So long as the people of Wyoming are willing to permit the politicians to play with their highest institution of learning, there is little hope for genuine progress. The state is one of small population capable of sustaining a limited number of high schools. The state university can be, however, a good college of untold benefit to Wyoming. The first requisite to this end is a divorce of educational administration from politics.

The case of the University of Oklahoma is one of such significance in education, and the reports concerning it have been so conflicting, that I have endeavored by a personal visit to Oklahoma to ascertain as nearly as one may the facts concerning the dismissal of the president and a number of professors.

www.bbc.com THE CASE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

In June of this year there occurred in the University of Oklahoma an incident of such unusual character and of such significance as to demand some account in the report of an institution which is just beginning relations with the state universities—I refer to the dismissal by the newly appointed board of regents of the president of the university and a number of its professors, and the appointment by the board of their successors.

Separated from the dust of the political campaign which has somewhat obscured the view of the public, the bare facts are these: The University of Oklahoma was established some seventeen years ago at the small town of Norman on the Santa Fé Railroad. The then territory of Oklahoma followed the example of most western states and unfortunately placed its state university in a small village instead of a centre of population and transportation. Like most state institutions of its region, the university has grown and flourished. Its president proved an effective officer and at the time the Carnegie Foundation was established, the Oklahoma university was the only state university in the south whose entrance requirements equaled those of good colleges in other parts of the United States.

In the early part of 1908 a new governing board, known as the board of regents, was named by the governor under the new constitution. Before this board could take action, the attorney-general of the state decided that the control of the university rested in the state board of education. This latter board met, assumed that a new régime was beginning, and elected, instead of the former president, Arthur Grant Evans, president of a modest school in the Indian Territory. Of this board Governor Haskell was a member. The courts quickly decided that the control of the university did not lie in the state board of education, but in the board of regents; whereupon this board met in June, dismissed the president, chose in his place Mr. Evans, dismissed in addition a considerable number of the professors and appointed in their places men of their own choosing, without waiting for the advice or assistance of the newly chosen president and without making to the public any definite and explicit statement as to the reason for these sweeping changes.

This action has brought down upon the board of regents not only sharp criticism, but charges of unfitness and of subserviency to political and denominational influences. The careful examination which I have made of the whole matter leaves in my mind no doubt of the high standing and good intentions of the board. The president of the board is a man universally respected in Oklahoma as an intelligent and upright citizen; the other members are held to be honorable and high-minded men. It would be difficult to select a group of more intelligent and well-intentioned citizens. Nor is there evidence of systematic effort on the part of the board to serve a particular political party or a particular denomination. To understand how a body of high-minded men could carry out so radical a measure, one must view this whole transac-

tion against the background of the political and economic history of the state of Oklahoma. It is scarcely possible to sit down in New York or Washington and judge such a proceeding fairly and impartially.

The present state of Oklahoma is made up of two territories approximately equal in arable land and in population. Before statehood was accomplished, the territory of Oklahoma was under ordinary territorial government, the governor, judges, marshals, and principal officers being appointed from Washington; but there was a territorial legislature and the citizens of the territory had local self-government. They were able, therefore, to establish colleges and schools. The Indian Territory, on the other hand, was governed by the Department of the Interior from Washington. There was no such thing as local government, and all administration was in the hands of appointees made from Washington. In both territories the appointments were political; the delays of administration were vexatious and oftentimes arbitrary. The officials were in some cases conscientious; in other cases well meaning but incompetent; in still other cases both incompetent and dishonest. The probate commissioners, marshals, and many other officers in whose hands administration lay were of course the appointees of influential politicians in other states. During democratic administration they were democratic; during republican administration they were republican. One who has not had the opportunity to observe life under such conditions can scarcely realize the demoralization and the dissatisfaction which such administration is sure to bring forth. It is not at all surprising that these office-holders were disliked and that they were looked upon as carpet-baggers.

Meantime, the situation was complicated by the rapid increase of population until there were a half million people in each territory, a population distinctively American, made up from all the states of the Union and composed in large measure of the more alert, active, and aggressive elements of our citizenship. Furthermore, the material resources in coal, oil, gas, and similar products introduced still other complications which made the slow and uncomfortable administration of the two territories particularly galling and unsatisfactory.

Under these circumstances the people of Oklahoma and Indian Territory naturally turned to statehood as a measure of relief. Each territory was ambitious to become a state. It was only after it became plain that Congress would never admit them separately that they came together in a common effort to enter the Union as a single state. When the constitution carrying this provision was submitted to the people, it was approved by an enormous majority, which expressed the almost universal desire of the people for statehood. Although the geographic line of division between the two territories was thus wiped out by their union in a single state, this invisible line of separation still runs across all political and economic questions. If senators are to be selected, one of them must come from the Indian Territory; if teachers are to be chosen for an institution, the Indian Territory must not be forgotten. Everywhere in political questions the old-time separation still makes its influence felt.

It was a significant feature of the situation that office-holders almost without exception opposed statehood. They desired to preserve the *status quo*. It is not surprising that this attitude on their part aroused resentment among the great body of the people, and that when statehood came, there was a widespread demand for the removal of the old officers and the substitution of those who had favored the policy for which the great majority of the citizens of the state had stood. Among these office-holders were many in the higher institutions of learning who had been appointed under a republican administration and who were, in popular opinion, looked upon as subject to removal exactly as the clerks of the territorial courts.

Imperfect as this sketch is, it may serve to indicate something of the political régime under which the people of these two territories had lived. The whole population had been educated to look upon every public office as a party asset. Party bitterness was intensified and denominational partisanship excited. The motives of every man who came into political place were attacked. The readiness to accuse all office-holders of insincerity or bad motives led to an almost universal distrust. The common suspicion of men's motives "spoiled the sweet world's taste."

It was in this atmosphere of political distrust that statehood began and the administration of the new institutions of higher learning in the state was undertaken. Of these higher institutions there are six: three normal schools, a colored industrial and normal university, the agricultural and mechanical college, and the state university. The places in these institutions were regarded by a great share of the population of Oklahoma as the legitimate spoils of the victorious party. The administration of the two territories had been for twelve years under republican control, the democrats were hungry for office, and the various boards appointed to the government of these educational institutions were under very much the same pressure to appoint their supporters as was felt in other offices, not educational.

Action varied in the different institutions. In one of the normal schools a fairly clean sweep was made; in the others a large number of changes took place, and the head of the school of agriculture, seeing the storm on the horizon, prudently resigned.

It should be said to the credit of the state administration that it has dealt with the colored institution of higher learning generously. The head of this institution is a colored man of great ability and good sense, a graduate of Brown University. He has received from the present administration a more generous and sympathetic support than he has ever received before, a result reflecting credit on the superintendent of public instruction and indicating a friendly relation between the white and black parts of the population.

The situation at the state university was somewhat different. A new board of regents was appointed by the governor, of which the governor himself is a member. The initial mistake was in the failure to retain any member of the old board who might carry into the new body some appreciation of the history and the tradition of the former work. This mistake is, of course, due to Governor Haskell, but there is

no evidence to show that it resulted from any other cause than his ignorance of university and college work.

The board, by one method or another, partly through the influence of numerous petty complaints, partly as the result of the suspicions and traditions current in Oklahoma, soon convinced themselves that the university needed a new head. They regarded President Boyd, whether justly or unjustly, as not only a republican, but as closely associated with the republican machine. He did not have their confidence; they knew little of his service; and their general judgment was that the institution needed a new head. Had the board of regents, finding themselves in this frame of mind, frankly stated their position, looked over the country, found a man of acknowledged educational standing and of tried executive ability, and brought him to the head of the institution, there would have been little criticism of their action. In fact, they considered this solution of the matter, but the sum which this young and rich state appropriates for the payment of the president's salary is too small to tempt any man from an office of responsibility where his abilities have already been demonstrated. The board thereupon called to the presidency a man of their own acquaintance, a Presbyterian minister of the Indian Territory, who had been connected with a modest educational effort in Muscogee, Mr. Arthur Grant Evans. Mr. Evans is not a university man and has had no touch with university matters or the university system of education in the United States. On the other hand, he has not been an active participant in politics. That Governor Haskell took a leading part in the removal of President Boyd and in the appointment of Mr. Evans is evident. On the other hand, there is nothing to show that he attempted to overawe the board: democrats and republicans agreed in the final action.

The board, however, did not stop with the removal of the president. Without waiting to give the new executive officer any voice in the decision of these matters, it proceeded to investigate through a committee the professors of the university and dismissed a number, amongst them some of the best men in the institution. In taking this action the board undoubtedly allowed itself to be carried away by the scandal and gossip of a small university town. The charges against these men varied all the way from petty complaints about dancing and smoking to remote scandal affecting their families and their characters. The board of regents gave ear unfortunately to every citizen of Norman or of the state who desired to unfold a tale of scandal or of complaint. Part of these accusations had been stirred up by a rival who desired the presidency; part had come from the scandal which grows naturally in a small town; part was the outcome of the universal readiness to suspect, and part undoubtedly was due to unwise acts of these teachers themselves. The regents put entirely too much weight on such evidence. They decided that the university was morally in a bad way and they were called on to "clean it up." They were the victims of their suspicions.

It is clear that the regents had no conception of the blow which they were dealing to the institution they had been appointed to govern. Apparently they expected

that a president and a number of professors could be dismissed, and the institution would go about its work, very much as the work of a shop would continue after the foreman and some of his assistants had been sent off. The attitude of the college professor to his work is not always understood. He performs service out of all proportion to the pay he receives. In order that that service may be given in full measure, he must have security of position and freedom from sectarian or political restriction. The action of the regents in dismissing arbitrarily a number of professors wrought a complete change in the atmosphere of the Oklahoma university. Some of the men who remained scurried about to invoke such political aid as they could to retain their places; others looked about for a new field of work; all who remained in the institution lived in the dread of the arbitrary and uncertain removal which they saw impending. The *morale* of the place was shattered. Those who were sent away were in many respects more fortunate than those who remained, for no man can live under such conditions and do his work in the right way. The gentlemen who brought about this state of affairs unquestionably intended to do the institution a service, not to strike it a blow; but it did not seem to have occurred to them that the university could be cleaned up, if that were necessary, without doing it with a club.

These gentlemen were entirely ignorant of university administration. Having dismissed the president, they no longer had any expert advice. If the situation were not so pathetic, if it had not involved such cruel hardship, there would be something amusing in the picture of this group of busy business men gravely sitting down to choose professors of psychology and education. Even in the ample provisions of the constitution of Oklahoma there is unfortunately nothing to restrain a group of such well-meaning gentlemen from doing the foolish thing when they undertake to administer a matter of which they know nothing.

The fundamental error which the board made was in confusing government with administration. They were appointed to govern the University of Oklahoma, a task for which they were entirely competent. Instead of governing it, they undertook to administer it, a task for which they were absolutely unfit. The question of choosing professors for the specific work of various departments of learning is one which ought to be committed to an expert executive. It is for such work that a board of regents appoints a president. When this board of regents took into its hands the work of the executive, they entered upon a path sure to lead to difficulties, to mistakes, and to injustice.

The action of the board of regents seems, therefore, to me to have been an unwise act performed by a group of well-meaning, busy men who were misled in the main by three influences: first, the prejudices of the political régime which they had shared; second, the erroneous weight given to the scandal and gossip of a small town; and third, their own lack of judgment in attempting to administer the institution instead of governing it.

The charge that the board of regents systematically undertook to appoint men in accordance with political and denominational lines seems to me ill founded. Democrats and republicans were dismissed, and democrats and republicans joined in that action. The politics involved were personal, not party politics, that widespread variety which prompts men to appoint their own friends to office unless held in check by better civic ideals.

The charge of denominational self-seeking arose in the main from two circumstances. One was the candidacy of a man who had stumped the state in support of Governor Haskell and who demanded the presidency of the state university in return. He depended for his influence in large measure on the denominational body which he assumed to represent. The man was clearly unfit, and Governor Haskell and the board of regents were entirely right in declining to appoint him, not only to the presidency, but to any other position. It is a matter of regret that many good men of his own denomination urged his appointment, notwithstanding the man's evident unfitness.

The other circumstance was the publication of a personal letter written by a young minister in Norman to a member of the board. It was a foolish letter, advising the dismissal of a number of professors on the ground of immorality, as shown by dancing and card-playing, and urging the appointment of as many professors as possible who were members of his own church. There is no particular evidence that this letter had any special influence on the board, but it is in many ways one of the most discouraging incidents connected with this unfortunate matter, not so much from the standpoint of the regents or of the university as from the standpoint of a great religious organization. That a man so lacking in true religious spirit, so wanting in the qualities of religious leadership, so unfit to stand before a group of university students as a leader, should be sent by an organized Christian body to be pastor in a university town is a misfortune, alike to religion and to education. The responsibility rests not only upon the unfortunate young man who wrote the letter, but upon the shoulders of those who commissioned him. The preparation of this man for the ministry was not such as would have justified his appointment to such a place, and the organization which commissions such men deals heavy blows at the cause of true religion. Churches even more than colleges suffer from low standards of admission.

The interest which the student of education has in this whole transaction lies, not so much in the determination of the rights and wrongs of the affair itself, as in its effect upon the larger interests of education and of religion, and in ascertaining how the mistakes which have been made may be turned to the better guidance of university trustees in the future. The value of any study of the incident lies not in looking to the past, but in looking to the future.

This affair, unfortunate as it is, carries with it, as it seems to me, important lessons: first, for the state of Oklahoma and its university; second, in the government of all universities; and third, it emphasizes afresh a lesson concerning the method of administration of the country itself which we need greatly to lay to heart.

So far as Oklahoma and its university are concerned, the moral seems clear. A well-meaning board appointed to govern and cherish the university has struck it a blow from which it will take years to recover. It is the duty of this board now to make clear to the people of their own state that they are the governors, not the executive officers, of the institution; that they stand back of their president with their advice, their counsel, their assistance, and that he is to be the executive officer; that, further, the professors of their institution are to enjoy the security and the freedom which alone can make a true university or a true college possible. Most of the state universities have had to go through the fire of political and denominational partisanship before they reached that stage of growth in which freedom of speech and security of place were guaranteed to their teachers. Before this can be done, the people of the whole state must be educated to the idea of intellectual freedom as the only atmosphere in which truth grows. The regents of the University of Oklahoma have now the opportunity to contribute to this ideal in their own state. Meantime, it is clearly the duty of every friend of education in Oklahoma to stand squarely behind the new president in his work, just so long as that work looks toward educational sincerity, toward intellectual freedom, toward security from political or arbitrary conditions. The University of Oklahoma has suddenly acquired an unenviable name among educational institutions which can only be made right by a government and an administration so clearly free of partisanship, so high-minded, so sympathetic to scholarship, so careful of the rights of its teachers, that the dignity and security of the scholar's life may be fully recognized. The regents of the Oklahoma university have it in their power to render a signal service to education and to their state. Just north of Norman is Oklahoma City, a centre of population and transportation, the obviously fit site for their state university. If the governing board of the University of Oklahoma will address themselves seriously and energetically to the problem of the removal of the university and its housing in suitable quarters in the outskirts of Oklahoma City on a plan commensurate with the resources of this great new state, they will confer lasting honor on themselves and earn the gratitude of generations yet unborn. It goes without saying that in carrying out such a movement any arrangement made with the town of Norman should be scrupulously satisfied. The present moment is an opportune one for the consideration of this matter inasmuch as the main building of the university was recently burned and the two buildings now in use are of very little value. Such a movement is worthy of a great and progressive state.

Further, the outcome of this matter suggests a new conception of the close ties which bind together all institutions of the higher learning. No university in this day lives to itself, any more than a state or a community can live to itself. The indignity offered the teaching profession in the University of Oklahoma was felt in every university in every state. It was a blow at academic integrity. The question whether the men dismissed were abler men than those appointed is perhaps an idle

one to discuss. It is clear that some of those who were dismissed were able and successful teachers, and that some of those who were chosen did not have the qualifications which an experienced educational executive would have asked. The essential wrong was that men were being dismissed and appointed by a body wholly unfitted to pass on the academic qualifications of university professors. To prove such fitness something more is needed than an academic degree. The ability to select fit teachers is the highest quality of the trained college executive.

Finally, one cannot forget that this affair is an incident in that national confusion of government with administration from which our nation's business suffers. Two overshadowing questions have confronted us in recent years. One is the frank recognition of the principles of morality and justice as the policy of government; the other is practical and efficient administration of the government's business, not in the departments at Washington alone, but in Oklahoma and Colorado and Alaska and throughout our wide domain.

In our political organization as originally constituted the distinction between government and administration was clearly recognized. The government was in the hands of the chosen representatives of the people, who thereby, according to the theory of the republic, themselves governed. The administration, on the other hand, with the exception of a few great administrative offices which must of necessity share with the people's representatives in governing, was to be carried on by competent men skilled in their respective lines of service. Fitness was the only requisite; the positions these men hold—assisting in the collection of the revenue, the survey of the coast, the apportionment of public lands—have no political significance; they are purely administrative. It is only to the government, that is, to the chosen representatives of the people assembled in congress and the legislatures, and to a few great officers of state, that the duty falls to formulate the laws and to lay down the lines of policy upon which the administration is to be carried on.

These distinctions in the United States to-day have become confused and often reversed. Those elected by the people to govern, namely the legislators, partly abdicate the governing function in order to usurp the purely administrative function of managing appointments to office. The technical and routine administration of the people's affairs, on the other hand, which ought to go on undisturbed by the great question of public policy which the people and their representatives are deciding, is entangled in the governing function through the importance to a mere administrative official of being on the winning side governmentally. The situation as originally intended is thus almost directly reversed. The most singular effect of this partial interchange of functions has been the change in the status of the presidency and the cabinet. These great offices were primarily intended to supervise the general administrative organization and also to cooperate with the legislative portion of the government in framing governmental policies. The president now almost never exercises his supervisory administrative function. Such a thing as sitting down with his

cabinet to the study of the administrative betterment of a great department is unknown. More and more the president has tended to become the political rather than the administrative head of the nation. This may be a fortunate tendency, but one of its accompanying features is not merely unwise, but grotesque, for at the same time that the presidency has given up the supervision of administration on a large scale, it has had forced upon it an overwhelming load of the pettiest kind of administration, — the reward of a local politician with the post office at Fort Smith, and the curbing of a disgruntled faction by the removal of the collector of customs at Sitka. The president as this kind of administrative officer is circumstanced very much as the president of the Canadian Pacific Railroad would be, if he sat down in Montreal day by day and appointed the section men out in Vancouver. The president's coadjutors are involved in the same tendency as he. The appointment of a clerk which is urged by an influential senator looms larger in the horizon of the secretary of the interior than the efficiency of the land office at Glenwood Springs, Colorado; and yet on the latter hang the interests and the happiness of many American families.

The situation is due to no one party. It is the outcome of certain tendencies and practices during the last eight decades. More than one president have sought in vain to stem this tide. There is only one way out, and that is to go back to the fundamental distinction between government and administration, and see to it that those who govern attend to the work of government and those who are to administer to administration. Our system of politics necessitates that government shall be party government, but the introduction of party into administration is no part of that system. In time, the inefficiency and rapidly growing cost of administration interwoven with party politics will cause one of the parties to make the severance of this unprofitable alliance a campaign issue. Some day we shall elect a president on the practical issue, effective administration as divorced from party government.

PROGRESS TOWARD UNITY IN COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

THE matter of securing uniform requirements for admission to college and the uniform administration of these requirements have continued to occupy a large share of the work of the Foundation. Conferences with college entrance boards and with other bodies have been held throughout the year in the interest of the practical solution of these questions.

The year has been one of marked progress in the direction of reasonable and uniform standards. Not only has much thoughtful attention been given to the subject by college administrators, but higher and more flexible standards have been widely put into practice. The time has now come, I believe, when the efforts which have been made independently in various parts of the country may be crystallized into one standard which shall be national in scope. Educationally we have passed through an experimental epoch out of which we should seek principles and conclusions which shall be practicable and national. The following tables give a list of changes in entrance requirements made during the year, which in itself indicates the movement toward such conclusions.

INSTITUTION	<i>Advance in requirements for admission in units, 1907-8</i>	
NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		
University of Maine, Orono	14	<i>units to 14.5 units</i>
Bowdoin College, Brunswick, Maine	12	" " 14 "
Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont	12.5	" " 14* "
Brooklyn Polytechnic Institute, Brooklyn, New York	13.5	" " 14.5 "
Clarkson School of Technology, Potsdam, New York	13.2	" " 14.4 "
Alfred University, Alfred, New York	13	" " 15 "
Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania	11	" " 14 "
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION		
Delaware College, Newark, Delaware	12.6	" " 12.9 "
St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland	7.6	" " 13.4 "
Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Virginia	7.5	" " 14 "
Roanoke College, Salem, Virginia	5.5	" " 7.5 "
University of Virginia, Charlottesville	8.5	" " 11.5† "
Washington and Lee University, Lexington, Virginia	5.5	" " 11 "
West Virginia University, Morgantown	12.8	" " 14.3 "
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill	12.9	" " 14.7 "
Trinity College, Durham, North Carolina	13	" " 14 "
University of South Carolina, Columbia	7.2	" " 11.2* "
Converse College, Spartanburg, South Carolina	9.4	" " 11.5 "
University of Georgia, Athens	11.2	" " 12 "
Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida	12.6	" " 14.4 "

* Latin Scientific Course.

† In 1908, 14.5 units.

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INSTITUTION	<i>Advance in requirements for admission in units, 1907-8</i>	
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION		
State University of Kentucky, Lexington	12	<i>units to 13.5 units</i>
University of Tennessee, Knoxville	10	" " 11.5 "
University of Alabama, University	9.2	" " 10.5 "
University of Texas, Austin	11.4	" " 12 "
University of Arkansas, Fayetteville	9.5	" " 10.5 "
Hendrix College, Conway, Arkansas	12.5	" " 14 "
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION		
Denison University, Granville, Ohio	9.6	" " 14.2 "
Findlay College, Findlay, Ohio	10.8	" " 14 "
Hiram College, Hiram, Ohio	11.5	" " 15.2 "
Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio	11.5	" " 14 "
Hanover College, Hanover, Indiana	10.5	" " 14 "
Illinois Woman's College, Jacksonville, Illinois	12	" " 14.5 "
Lake Forest College, Lake Forest, Illinois	13.4	" " 15 "
Rockford College, Rockford, Illinois	13.5	" " 15 "
Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois	11	" " 14.5 "
Cornell College, Mount Vernon, Iowa	12	" " 15 "
Iowa College, Grinnell, Iowa	12.5	" " 14 "
Drury College, Springfield, Missouri	13.5	" " 15 "
Dakota Wesleyan University, Mitchell, South Dakota	12	" " 15 "
University of North Dakota, Grand Forks	14.6	" " 15 "
WESTERN DIVISION		
Montana College of A. and M. A., Bozeman	12	" " 14 "
New Mexico College of A. and M. A., Mesilla Park	8.8	" " 9 "
Whitworth College, Tacoma, Washington	11.1	" " 14 "
Willamette University, Salem, Oregon	12	" " 14.8 "
McMinnville College, McMinnville, Oregon	8	" " 12 "

In the foregoing table are the names of fifty-six institutions, and their geographical distribution indicates the widespread tendency toward uniformity. In a number of instances these changes were small ones and did not involve any readjustment of the relations between the college and the high schools. On the other hand, the advance in requirements sometimes amounted to as much as a full additional year of work in a secondary school, as at St. John's College and Washington and Lee University. The following institutions raised their requirement by making the course in their preparatory departments one of four years instead of one of three years: Beloit College, Cornell College, Dakota Wesleyan University, Denison University, Drury College, Findlay College, Hanover College, Hendrix College, Hiram College, Illinois Woman's College, Iowa College, Whitworth College, and Willamette University.

During the year the Foundation has corresponded with more than five hundred

colleges on the subject of entrance requirements, and from this correspondence it seems that the record for the coming year will easily duplicate the progress of the year just closed. In localities where the increase has been most marked—as, for example, in Virginia—the change radically affects the high school system. The schoolmen, however, have been glad to cooperate to the fullest extent. An advance in college standards means an advance in the standards of the high schools; it means a more clearly marked field for secondary education and an opportunity for more efficient work.

A brief survey of the development of our educational system during the last thirty years brings out the fact that the preparatory schools have been active in following any movement toward a fair and uniform standard. These schools have felt sharply the difficulties and the annoyance of an ill-defined field of work. With the widening of the curricula of the colleges and the rapid growth of colleges in number, each an independent unit in our educational system, there came into existence almost as many varieties of requirements for admission as there were institutions to make the requirements. The masters of preparatory schools were at much unnecessary expense in preparing boys for college. A candidate for admission to Princeton in 1870, for example, must be able to read Sallust, while a candidate for admission to Harvard did not need Sallust, but did need a knowledge of ancient Greek and Roman history not required at Princeton. Small classes, special coaching, and consequent superficiality were the result. There was no real basis for secondary schools as such, or for college courses; there was confusion; plane geometry, history, and elementary science were high school studies as well as college studies. The period in which Latin, Greek, and arithmetic would admit a boy into any college had gone by, and a new adjustment consequent on the many additions to the old-fashioned standard had not come.

The history of our educational development is notable, too, for the isolated efforts which have made for uniformity. Various small groups of college men and high school teachers have united for the betterment of local conditions; actual progress toward uniformity from a national point of view is of recent date.

The first notable effort toward a uniform standard in college requirements grew out of a conference of New England colleges held at Trinity College, in December, 1879. At the conference a comparison was made of college catalogues and of college examination papers. President Eliot describes the finding in his Report for 1886-7, page 5: "Some colleges demanded no English at entrance; others required the candidate to write a short composition, but gave no hint as to what the subject might be; others called for a knowledge of formal grammar and nothing else; others for both grammar and composition. Some of the examination papers asked questions which could not be fully answered without a minute knowledge of prescribed texts, or of difficult points in grammar; others asked questions suited to the capacity of grammar school, or even primary school, pupils."

This conference led to the adoption by the New England colleges, with the ex-

ception of Yale, of a uniform requirement in English. The English requirements which were then in force at Harvard were accepted. In the next three years a similar uniformity in stated requirements for the classics and for mathematics was accomplished for New England.

The fair degree of uniformity thus put into practice stimulated the formation of permanent organizations of secondary schools and colleges. At the meeting of the Massachusetts Classical and High School Teachers' Association in 1884, the secretary of the association was requested by vote to propose to the heads of the New England colleges a conference with preparatory school teachers. Out of this effort grew the first organization of the kind, the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools. The object of the association was stated to "be the advancement of the cause of liberal education by the promotion of interests common to colleges and preparatory schools." The membership of the association was open to all colleges and preparatory schools within the territory, irrespective of educational standard or number of courses. Seventy-three colleges and preparatory schools were enrolled as members, the colleges being:

Amherst College	Amherst, Mass.	Smith College	Northampton, Mass.
Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Me.	Trinity College	Hartford, Connecticut
Brown University	Providence, R. I.	Tufts College	Tufts College, Mass.
Boston University	Boston, Mass.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Colby College	Waterville, Maine	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
Bates College	Lewiston, Maine	University of Vermont	Burlington, Vermont
Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.	Yale University	New Haven, Conn.
Middlebury College	Middlebury, Vt.		

In 1887 representatives of fifteen colleges in the state of Pennsylvania met at Franklin and Marshall College and formed themselves into an association to be called the College Association of Pennsylvania. The next year the scope of the association was extended and the name changed to the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools in the Middle States and Maryland. The object, among other things, has been from the first "to consider the qualification for candidates for admission to the colleges and the methods of admission." Any college, normal school, or other school preparing students for college may be received into membership. The colleges now enrolled as members are:

Adelphi College	Brooklyn, New York	Canisius College	Buffalo, New York
Albright College	Myerstown, Pa.	Colgate University	Hamilton, New York
Alfred University	Alfred, New York	College of the City of	
Allegheny College	Meadville, Pa.	New York	New York, New York
Baltimore Polytechnic		College of St. Francis	
Institute	Baltimore, Maryland	Xavier	New York, New York
Beaver College	Beaver, Pennsylvania	Columbia University	New York, New York
Blairsville College	Blairsville, Pa.	Cornell University	Ithaca, New York
Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Delaware College	Newark, Delaware
Bucknell University	Lewisburg, Pa.	Dickinson College	Carlisle, Pennsylvania

Franklin and Marshall College	Lancaster, Pa.	St. Lawrence University	Canton, New York
Gallaudet College	Washington, D. C.	St. Stephen's College	Annandale, New York
George Washington University	Washington, D. C.	Swarthmore College	Swarthmore, Pa.
Georgetown University	Washington, D. C.	Syracuse University	Syracuse, New York
Hamilton College	Clinton, New York	Union University	Schenectady, N. Y.
Haverford College	Haverford, Pa.	University of Pennsylvania	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hobart College	Geneva, New York	University of Pittsburgh	Pittsburgh, Pa.
Howard University	Washington, D. C.	University of Rochester	Rochester, New York
Johns Hopkins University	Baltimore, Maryland	University of the State of New York	Albany, New York
Kee Mar College	Hagerstown, Md.	Ursinus College	Collegeville, Pa.
Lafayette College	Easton, Pennsylvania	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Lehigh University	South Bethlehem, Pa.	Washington College	Chestertown, Md.
Lebanon Valley College	Annville, Pa.	Washington and Jefferson College	Washington, Pa.
Manhattan College	New York, New York	Waynesburg College	Waynesburg, Pa.
Muhlenberg College	Allentown, Pa.	Wells College	Aurora, New York
New York University	New York, New York	Western Maryland College	Westminster, Md.
Pennsylvania State College	State College, Pa.	Wilson College	Chambersburg, Pa.
Princeton University	Princeton, New Jersey	Woman's College of Baltimore	Baltimore, Maryland
Rutgers College	New Brunswick, N. J.	Woman's College	Frederick, Maryland
St. John's College	Annapolis, Maryland		

The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States was organized in the autumn of 1895 at Atlanta, Georgia, at a meeting of delegates from a number of southern colleges and universities. The purpose of the meeting as stated was, first, to organize southern schools and colleges for coöperation and mutual benefit; second, to elevate the standard of scholarship and to effect uniformity of entrance requirements; and, third, to develop preparatory schools and cut off this work from the colleges.

This association has taken definite steps toward promoting uniform standards of entrance, and regulations touching upon the amount of work to be required and the administration of these requirements are made conditions for membership in the association. At the last meeting of the association held at Birmingham, Alabama, in November, 1907, the executive committee presented amended by-laws which are to be considered for adoption by the association at its next meeting. These by-laws are as follows:

1. No college belonging to this association shall maintain a preparatory school as part of its college organization. In case such school is maintained under the college charter, it must be kept rigidly distinct in students, faculty, and discipline.
2. Every college belonging to the association shall seek to promote the development of high schools in every way, and to this end shall admit no students except those who have completed a reputable high school course. In measuring the amount of work done by such students, the association accepts the valu-

ation indicated in the first annual report of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, published in 1906.

3. Candidates seeking full admission to college for any degree course in the literary department must offer fourteen units of work. Irregular students may be admitted to partial standing by offering ten units of work. Students may be admitted either on certificate or on written examination, but they must in all cases comply with the above requirements as to the amount of work offered. Conditions may not be so construed as to excuse students from offering at least ten units of preparatory work. The association strongly recommends that all candidates be required to offer English and mathematics, and that all candidates for full admission or for any degree courses be required to offer the necessary preparation in two languages besides English. Irregular students may become regular, that is, may secure full admission to college in two ways: (a) By passing off the necessary number of units in subjects prescribed for admission as the result of private study or in class; (b) by doing other work offered in college which shall be counted as the fulfilment of entrance requirements. In such cases two hours of class work for one college year shall be counted as equivalent to one entrance unit; but college work thus offered for admission must not be counted toward a degree.

4. Special students may be admitted to college without the usual form of examination under the following conditions: (a) They must be of mature age (not less than twenty years is suggested); (b) they must not be admitted to classes for which entrance examinations are required unless they pass such examinations; (c) they must give proof of adequate preparation for the course sought; (d) their names must be separately printed in the catalogue.

5. No preparatory school that confers degrees shall be eligible to membership in this association. Any school seeking membership must have a curriculum of study amply sufficient to meet the fullest requirements of the association for admission to college and must have students regularly finishing such course of study each year.

The roll of members of the association includes nineteen colleges and universities, and thirty schools. The colleges are:

Agnes Scott College	Decatur, Georgia	University of North Carolina	Chapel Hill, N. C.
Central University	Danville, Kentucky	University of the South	Sewanee, Tennessee
College of Charleston	Charleston, N. C.	University of Tennessee	Knoxville, Tennessee
Randolph-Macon College	Ashland, Virginia	University of Texas	Austin, Texas
Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Lynchburg, Virginia	University of Virginia	Charlottesville, Va.
Trinity College	Durham, N. C.	Vanderbilt University	Nashville, Tenn.
Tulane University	New Orleans, La.	Washington and Lee University	Lexington, Virginia
University of Alabama	University, Alabama	West Virginia University	Morgantown, W. Va.
University of Mississippi	Oxford, Miss.	Woman's College of Baltimore	Baltimore, Maryland
University of Missouri	Columbia, Missouri		

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was organized in 1892 for the purpose of establishing closer relations between the colleges and sec-

ondary schools of the North Central States. The membership of the association comprises, first, colleges, universities, and secondary schools; second, individuals identified with educational work within the limits of the association. No college or university is eligible for membership whose requirements for admission represent less than fifteen units of secondary work, nor which confers the degree of doctor of philosophy or doctor of science except after a period of three years of graduate study, not less than two of which must be years of resident study, at least one year of resident study to be spent at the institution conferring the degree.

The following colleges and universities are members of the association:

OHIO

Denison University, Granville
Miami University, Oxford
Oberlin College, Oberlin
Western Reserve University, Cleveland

Ohio State University, Columbus
Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware
University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati

MICHIGAN

Albion College, Albion

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

INDIANA

Indiana University, Bloomington

Wabash College, Crawfordsville

ILLINOIS

Knox College, Galesburg
Lake Forest University, Lake Forest
University of Illinois, Urbana

Northwestern University, Evanston
University of Chicago, Chicago

WISCONSIN

Beloit College, Beloit
Lawrence University, Appleton
University of Wisconsin, Madison

Milwaukee-Downer College, Milwaukee
Ripon College, Ripon

IOWA

Cornell College, Mount Vernon
State University of Iowa, Iowa City

Iowa College, Grinnell
Drake University, Des Moines

MISSOURI

Drury College, Springfield
Missouri Valley College, Marshall
Park College, Parkville

University of Missouri, Columbia
Washington University, St. Louis
Westminster College, Fulton

NEBRASKA

University of Nebraska, Lincoln

KANSAS

University of Kansas, Lawrence

COLORADO

Colorado College, Colorado Springs

University of Colorado, Boulder

OKLAHOMA

State University of Oklahoma, Norman

The associations just described have been the important organizations of a local nature whose chief object has been promotion of better understanding and coöperation between secondary schools and colleges. In addition to these organizations, there are a number of state college associations which exist primarily to safeguard the standards of higher education. These associations are organized with definite by-laws for membership which are designed to exclude all colleges and universities which do not meet specific regulations in regard to requirements for admission and requirements for graduation. They are in reality protective associations against sham colleges. Thus, President Benton in explaining the work of the Ohio College Association writes: "We have no legislative protection for our baccalaureate degrees and it has been necessary for us to join together in some such defensive organization as this. We admit no college to this association that does not conform to the rules concerning entrance requirements that we impose. . . . No college is admitted to our association until the application has been on the table for a year following the meeting of the association at which it was filed, and before it is admitted it is subjected to a thorough inspection by our executive committee."

Of these state associations, the one in Ohio has been most active. The constitution provides that members of the association must require at least thirteen units of academic work for admission to the freshman class; and the minimum requirements for a degree as stated are "four years' work of fifteen recitations per week." There are in the state of Ohio fifty-two colleges and universities granting college degrees. Of these the following twenty-two are members of the Ohio College Association:

Antioch College	Yellow Springs	Oberlin College	Oberlin
Buchtel College	Akron	Ohio State University	Columbus
Baldwin College	Berea	Ohio Wesleyan University	Delaware
Cleveland College for Women	Cleveland	Otterbein University	Westerville
Denison University	Granville	Ohio University	Athens
Heidelberg University	Tiffin	University of Cincinnati	Cincinnati
Hiram College	Hiram	University of Wooster	Wooster
Kenyon College	Gambier	Western College for Women	Oxford
Lake Erie College for Women	Painesville	Western Reserve University	Cleveland
Mt. Union College	Alliance	Wittenburg College	Springfield
Miami University	Oxford		
Marietta College	Marietta		

The Missouri College Union is an organization whose object is the discussion of subjects of common interest; it aims to exclude from its membership all colleges of the state which have not the facilities for doing creditable college work. The institutions forming the union are:

Central College	Fayette	Park College	Parkville
Drury College	Springfield	St. Louis University	St. Louis
Missouri Valley College	Marshall	School of Mines	Rolla

University of Missouri	Columbia	Westminster College	Fulton
Washington University	St. Louis	William Jewell College	Liberty

A similar organization, the Association of the Colleges of South Carolina, was formed in 1899 by the "*bona fide* male colleges" of that state. The association was reorganized last year in order to include the secondary schools of the state and thus to bring about more intelligent coöperation between the colleges and the schools. The meetings of the association have been largely devoted to discussions concerning admission requirements and methods of teaching. Over fifty high schools are enrolled as members, and the following colleges:

Clemson Agricultural College	Clemson College	Presbyterian College of South Carolina	Clinton
College of Charleston	Charleston	South Carolina Military Academy	Charleston
Erskine College	Due West	University of South Carolina	Columbia
Furman University	Greenville	Wofford College	Spartanburg
Newberry College	Newberry		

In the state of Iowa there exists an exceptional plan for the regulation of collegiate instruction which may be compared with the University of the State of New York. The general assembly created a board of educational examiners, composed of the state superintendent of instruction, the president of the state university, the president of the state normal school, and two men appointed by the governor. This board under the power vested in it has grouped the colleges of the state into three classes. A system of "points" is defined and the colleges are divided according to the number of points that they are able to meet. These points and the method of grouping the colleges were adopted by the board last year. An institution to be recognized as a college of liberal arts must provide a sufficient number of class hours of college grade, to offer opportunity for freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior years' work, making a total minimum of sixty hours for any one semester. Laboratory hours are to be reckoned as not less than two for one recitation hour.

The points and the method of grouping the colleges are as follows:

1. The number of class hours for the heads of departments and students shall not exceed twenty a week.
2. A faculty properly qualified shall consist of graduates of colleges who have pursued graduate work equivalent at least to that required for a master's degree.
3. The library shall consist of at least five thousand volumes, selected with reference to college subjects and exclusive of public documents.
4. The laboratory equipment shall be worth not less than \$5000 and so distributed as to establish at least an efficient chemical, physical, botanical, and zoölogical laboratory.
5. The means of support is defined as requiring a permanent endowment of not less than \$200,000 or a fixed assured income equivalent to the interest derived from at least \$200,000.

6. The average salary of heads of departments, exclusive of the salary of the president, shall be at least \$1000.

7. The college must maintain at least seven separate departments or chairs, and in case the pedagogical work of the institution is to be accepted without examination the college must maintain at least eight chairs, one of which shall be devoted exclusively to education or at most to philosophy, including psychology and education. The heads of these departments should be devoted to college work.

8. The graduates must show the completion of a four-year secondary course and a four-year college course above the usual eight grades of common schools, and the standing and character of the institution and the nature of its equipment and work must be such as to entitle its graduates to admission to the graduate college of the State University of Iowa.

The colleges are classed into three groups as follows:

1. Colleges fully meeting the eight points constitute Group A.
2. Colleges fully meeting either five, six, or seven of the eight points constitute Group B.
3. Colleges fully meeting either three or four of the eight points constitute Group C.

The classification is as follows:

GROUP A

Coe College, Cedar Rapids
 Cornell College, Mount Vernon
 Drake University, Des Moines
 Highland Park College, Des Moines
 Iowa College, Grinnell

Iowa Wesleyan University, Mount Pleasant
 Morningside College, Sioux City
 Parsons College, Fairfield
 Simpson College, Indianola
 Upper Iowa University, Fayette

GROUP B

Central University, Pella
 Des Moines College, Des Moines
 Leander Clark College, Toledo
 Lenox College, Hopkinton

Luther College, Decorah
 Penn College, Oskaloosa
 Tabor College, Tabor

GROUP C

Buena Vista College, Storm Lake
 Charles City College, Charles City

St. Joseph's College, Dubuque

In the state of New York the degree-granting power of colleges and universities is under the control of the Regents of the University of the State of New York. This board has outlined a system of "counts," and institutions of higher learning in the state must require for admission seventy counts if they are to grant college degrees. In other words, by legislative power the colleges and universities of New York are based upon a four-year high school system.

In Kansas and in Illinois the state college associations differ from the associations named in that they exclude from their membership their state institutions and that they are devoted primarily to the interests of "Christian education."

All of the college associations just enumerated have exerted an important influ-

ence in their respective territories toward uniformity and toward sincerity in college work. Each association has been purely a local organization, restricting its membership on geographical lines; and each has developed with little reference to educational conditions outside of its own boundaries. The combined efforts of these movements, however, have prepared the way for a national adaptation of certain practices which they have encouraged or demanded. Such a development, inevitable in view of the many local forces at work on the same problems, found its first expression in the report of the Committee of Ten which was appointed by the National Educational Association in 1892. This committee was appointed to formulate plans looking to a greater degree of uniformity in admission requirements. The result of its work need not be discussed here in detail. In approaching the problem the committee turned its attention to the details of the courses of secondary schools and its report gave a tremendous impetus toward uniform secondary education. It was the sense of the committee that the colleges should adapt their requirements to the secondary schools after these schools had been put upon a sound educational basis. With uniformity in the secondary schools, uniformity in college entrance requirements would follow as a natural sequence. The methods of adjustment between the colleges and secondary schools were left for each college or association of colleges to solve.

In 1895 the Committee on College Entrance Requirements was appointed by the National Educational Association to investigate existing entrance conditions and to report upon ways and means of securing uniformity. The final report of this committee, which was in preparation for four years, was presented in 1899. The conclusions rising out of the investigation were set forth in fourteen resolutions. These resolutions furnished a feasible means of securing uniformity in requirements as well as elasticity in the requirements. The report was the first step, national in character, toward bringing the high schools and colleges throughout the country into harmonious coöperation.

The practical administration of uniform entrance regulations, even after such regulations had been adopted, was still to be accomplished, and in a large measure is still to be accomplished. Uniformity in theory without uniformity in practice not only leaves the problem unsolved, but is one of the chief causes of the separation of our educational system into unrelated parts. More than any other one thing it has given rise to a lack of confidence in the colleges among high school teachers. Different interpretations of a uniform requirement may each be made with sincerity, but from the point of view of the secondary school the fairness and the sincerity are not always evident. The difference in interpretation is frequently so great that the requirements, uniform in theory, are in practice radically unlike.

The desire that the various educational associations should consider their problems national rather than sectional resulted in the formation in 1906 of the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This committee is a means by which each association represented in it is kept in touch with

the problems and progress of the various associations. At the meeting in April, 1908, the following subjects were presented for consideration:

1. The definition of the unit for the measurement of admission requirements to involve two elements,—the number and length of the weekly periods devoted to it in school, and the proportion of the entire school work of the year which it comprises.
2. The terminology of preparatory subjects; definitions of "hour," "count," "point," "exercise," "period," etc.
3. The continuation of the study of algebra and English in the last school year.
4. The quality of preparation for college as demanding attention before further increase in quantity of preparatory subjects is attempted.
5. The lists of schools approved for certificate purposes by the various boards and the combining of their results for general use.
6. A committee on transfer-credits.
7. The best way of arriving at an agreement on a scale of units for the measure of admission requirements.
8. Recognition of the element of continuity as of great value and importance in secondary school work.

The committee is composed of delegates from the following organizations:

- The New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools.
- The New England College Entrance Certificate Board.
- The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.
- The College Entrance Examination Board.
- The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.
- The Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States.
- The National Association of State Universities.
- The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching.
- The United States Commissioner of Education, *ex officio*.

The most effective agency working toward uniformity in administration of entrance requirements is the College Entrance Examination Board. This board not only publishes from time to time a statement of the ground which should be covered and of the aims which should be sought by secondary teaching, but it arranges for a uniform and impartial marking of all examination papers. The following subjects as taught in secondary schools come within the scope of the board: botany, chemistry, drawing, English, French, geography, German, Greek, history, Latin, mathematics, physics, Spanish, and zoölogy.

The provisions for the grading of examination books are as follows:

Immediately on the completion of an examination, the answer-books, or other records, shall be forwarded in sealed packages to the secretary of the board, who shall assign them for inspection and rating to such readers as the board, or the executive committee, may have chosen. The answer-books and other records, together with the rating accorded them, shall be returned by the reader, within one week after their receipt, to the secretary of the board, who shall issue

a certificate as to the name and residence of the candidate, the subjects in which examinations were taken, the rating accorded in each subject, and the place and date of the examinations.

Answer-books shall be marked on a scale of 100, books marked from 100 to 90 being rated as Excellent (A), from 90 to 75 as Good (B), from 75 to 60 as Fair (C), from 60 to 50 as Doubtful (D), from 50 to 40 as Poor (E), and below 40 as Very Poor (F). No answer-book shall be finally marked below 60 until it has been passed upon by two readers. Both marks and rating shall appear on the certificate. No revision of any answer-book will be made after its rating has been determined. All books marked below 60 shall be kept for two years. At any time within that period they will be sent, at the request of the candidate, to any designated college.

The board has in the past seven years provided a means for a fair and trustworthy uniformity of entrance terms among the institutions which make up its membership. This membership extends west as far as Cleveland, and south as far as Baltimore. It includes the following:

Adelphi College	Brooklyn, New York	New York University	New York, New York
Barnard College	New York, New York	Rutgers College	New Brunswick, N. J.
Brown University	Providence, R. I.	Smith College	Northampton, Mass.
Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	Stevens Institute of Technology	Hoboken, N. J.
Bucknell University	Lewisburg, Pa.	Swarthmore College	Swarthmore, Pa.
Case School of Applied Science	Cleveland, Ohio	Union College	Schenectady, N. Y.
Colgate University	Hamilton, New York	University of Pennsylvania	Philadelphia, Pa.
Columbia University	New York, New York	University of Rochester	Rochester, New York
Cornell University	Ithaca, New York	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Harvard University	Cambridge, Mass.	Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio
Johns Hopkins University	Baltimore, Maryland	Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Boston, Mass.	Woman's College of Baltimore	Baltimore, Md.
Mount Holyoke College	South Hadley, Mass.		

Another organization which should be here included is the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, formed in 1882 for "practical educational work." The association has 36 branches with an enrolment of about 3800 members. These branches interest themselves in their local educational needs, such as the betterment of state legislation for education, and the closer coöperation between schools and libraries. But the main effort of the association has been to increase the desire for college training among girls, and to keep the educational standard of colleges for women on the same plane as that of the colleges for men. There are 24 colleges and universities whose non-professional degrees admit to membership. Among the requirements for institutional membership in the association the following conditions are made with reference to scholarly standards:

1. Entrance requirements such as demand at least four years of serious secondary school work for preparation.
2. Class sections restricted to such numbers as insure proper individual instruction, except in the case of purely lecture courses.
3. A residence of at least two years in the college conferring the degree, or in a college of equally high grade.
4. Graduation requirements which correspond to the amount of work ordinarily included in four years of serious college study.

The institutions which are members of the association are the following:

Barnard College	New York, New York	University of Chicago	Chicago, Illinois
Boston University	Boston, Massachusetts	University of Illinois	Urbana
Bryn Mawr College	Bryn Mawr, Pa.	University of Kansas	Lawrence
Cornell University	Ithaca, New York	University of Michigan	Ann Arbor
Leland Stanford Junior University	Stanford University, California	University of Minnesota	Minneapolis
Massachusetts Institute of Technology	Boston, Massachusetts	University of Missouri	Columbia
Northwestern University	Evanston, Illinois	University of Nebraska	Lincoln
Oberlin College	Oberlin, Ohio	University of Wisconsin	Madison
Radcliffe College	Cambridge, Mass.	Vassar College	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Smith College	Northampton, Mass.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Syracuse University	Syracuse, New York	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
University of California	Berkeley, California	Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio

In May, 1902, delegates from nine New England colleges met at Boston and organized the New England College Entrance Certificate Board. The purpose of the board, as stated, is "receiving, examining, and acting upon all applications of schools that should ask for the privilege of certification." The organization is an effort to perfect uniformity in accepting secondary school certificates, and differs in its purpose from the College Entrance Examination Board in that the one aims at uniformity in the accrediting plan, the other at uniformity by means of examinations. The colleges which hold membership in the board are:

Amherst College	Amherst, Mass.	Tufts College	Tufts College, Mass.
Boston University	Boston, Mass.	University of Maine	Orono, Me.
Bowdoin College	Brunswick, Me.	University of Vermont	Burlington, Vt.
Brown University	Providence, R. I.	Wellesley College	Wellesley, Mass.
Dartmouth College	Hanover, N. H.	Wesleyan University	Middletown, Conn.
Mount Holyoke College	South Hadley, Mass.	Williams College	Williamstown, Mass.
Smith College	Northampton, Mass.		

In the west and south, through the leadership of the state universities, headway has been gained both toward uniformity in the work of the secondary schools and in the acceptance of this work by the colleges. The accrediting system, with the exception of the Case School of Applied Science at Cleveland, is in force in the colleges outside of New England and the Middle Atlantic States and Maryland. The greater number of state universities engage a professor in the department of education who

devotes his entire time to the high schools of the state; he visits the schools in all parts of the state, and assists in bettering courses of study and methods of teaching.

The chief difficulties in the progress toward uniformity lie in administration. In some instances the trouble grows out of the fact that the standard is ill based with reference to the secondary schools. The colleges in the last analysis must adapt themselves to the secondary schools, a principle emphasized by the Committee of Ten. They should adapt themselves to the work of the high grade secondary schools, and then, if need be, increase or lower their standard in coöperation with these schools. A second difficulty rises out of the desire for numbers. The temptation to laxity in administration is especially strong in institutions dependent upon tuition fees of students. The devices for the admission of students deficient in preparation I shall treat of in other pages of this report. The difficulties in the way of progress will gradually adjust themselves; and as the colleges and universities realize that the path of greatest usefulness lies in coöperation, they will agree upon the amount of work which the schools can adequately do and which, therefore, the colleges may reasonably require. Having fixed upon reasonable requirements they will then enforce them without evasion. It is perhaps not too much to hope that at least a few colleges may seek the unusual honor of a diminished student roll for the sake of such educational consistency and efficiency. The Foundation hopes to publish such a roll of honor.

THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS

The progress toward uniformity in college requirements for admission has been so far successful that practically all colleges and universities of adequate financial resources have either adopted a minimum standard resting upon the four-year high school, or are making toward it as rapidly as local and institutional conditions will permit. Meanwhile, the existence of irregularities in the admission of conditioned and of special students must be regarded as an anomaly that tends to make the uniformity nominal, rather than actual. I venture to question the wisdom of the varying treatment of an educational standard already agreed upon and announced.

Admission with conditions is intended, in theory at least, to render unnecessary the loss of a year to students who fail by a small margin to fulfil the regular requirements for admission. Such practice a generation ago had far more justification than at the present time. When high schools were comparatively few in number and courses in them meagre, the colleges supplemented the work in these schools and permitted students to enter courses for which they had not opportunity for complete preparation. There was no idea of competition between the high schools and colleges for students; and under such conditions no one would doubt the value of discretion on the part of a college faculty in admitting deficient students. But since that time the development of secondary schools has radically changed the relations between colleges and schools. A concession designed for narrow application has been so widely extended in practice that a large part of the incoming class of a college is frequently conditioned; and leniency, theoretically justifiable if involving one or two slight conditions, has developed into indiscriminate charity. Such practice tends to defeat a real coöperation between the schools and colleges.

In the subjoined tables are given data concerning one hundred and three colleges and universities, the list being composed of the accepted institutions of the Foundation and of the state universities. In this group we have an apparent approval of a college standard based upon a secondary school system; the entrance requirements, as stated, form an excellent basis of agreement as to the point at which college education should begin; college work is differentiated from high-school work. But this uniformity disappears when a large part of the student body may gain admission, not by meeting the stated requirements, but on terms which vary from one institution to another. At Amherst, for example, application for conditional admission is "considered on its merits;" at Cornell the decision rests with the faculty concerned; at Johns Hopkins with a committee; Drake University waives two units; Marietta College concedes three units; Trinity College four; and the catalogues of New York University, Hobart, Lehigh, Princeton, Smith, Pennsylvania, Vassar, and the University of California, and others, give no information as to how the matter is handled.

All of the colleges in the list state definitely the requirements for regular admission, and when no reference is made to a provision for conditioned students there may be

some implication that no such provision exists. But the fact is that practically all of the institutions in the group accept conditioned students, and the omission is not serious or misleading. The objection has been made to a full statement of the requirements in the catalogue that this would tend to endanger a thoroughly honest stand in the admission of students; that it is wiser to admit a bright, strong, student with two or three conditions than to admit another who may have only one condition, but who is reported as slow, or careless, or not physically strong; and further, that it is difficult, if not impossible, to formulate regulations which will indicate definitely the working of a wise and flexible discretion of a faculty.

These objections are not without force and probably account for the fact that in so many instances no reference is made to the provision. But in my judgment the time has come when the entire question should be reconsidered by college authorities with a view to their best interests and the interests of the secondary schools. A few instances of the results of the present practice may be helpful.

At Harvard a point is equivalent to about .6 of a unit; 26 points, or 16 units, make up the full quota of requirements for admission. Of the 607 freshmen admitted in the fall of 1907, fifty-eight per cent presented less than these 26 points or 16 units. In some cases less than 19 points or 10.8 units were presented. The conditions were not restricted to any one subject, or to any particular group of subjects. On the other hand, 107 members of the class presented more than the required 26 points.

Out of 697 students admitted directly from the secondary schools into the freshman class at Yale University this year, 391 were conditioned. In other words, 57 per cent of the incoming class at Yale did not meet the stated requirements of 14.5 units. At Columbia, 145 men were admitted by examination into the *college* of the university. Seventy of these 145 freshmen met fully the requirements of 14.5 units. Of the 75 freshmen who did not present the full standard the deficiencies ranged from half a unit to 7 units. Nineteen men were deficient in four units or more, that is, in at least one full year's work. In addition to this, ten boys, from seventeen to nineteen years of age, who succeeded in passing in the examinations only 3.5 to 8.5 units were admitted as "non-matriculated students." Similarly at Amherst, 49 out of 165 were admitted with conditions. Twelve of the 49 students were deficient 3 or more units. At the University of Illinois, 218 students were conditioned out of a total of 482; at Wellesley, 88 out of 388; at Cornell, 153 out of 362; at Princeton, 201 out of 360; and 36 out of 41 students admitted into the *college* of New York University were deficient. In the above instances students admitted from other colleges and those admitted as special students are not taken into consideration. In some instances, as at Cornell and the University of Illinois, the number of conditioned students includes those whose academic work, while not satisfying in full the prescribed entrance requirements, provides surplus entrance credit in other subjects. Such students are, of course, only technically deficient.

These figures, while they represent the practice at each institution named, do not readily lend themselves as a means of comparing the practice at institutions which

admit by examination only with institutions which accept certificates for admission. Thus, at Columbia students are admitted only upon examination. The great proportion of students who are conditioned at Columbia have studied the various subjects. At New York University, on the other hand, students are admitted with certificates. Under this plan when a student is conditioned it means, generally, that he has not studied at all the subjects in which he is deficient. There is evidently less justification for a conditioned enrolment in the latter case than in the former. In the middle west the universities have made much effort to perfect the certificate system, and in the first-class institutions adopting this system, the admission of conditioned students tends to disappear. The University of Wisconsin and Oberlin College are types of this kind.

The data given, however, indicate with sufficient clearness that there is a wide margin between the announced standards of entrance and the actual bases of admission. In this twilight zone of irresponsibility there is a full field for the exercise not only of wise discretion, but also of indiscriminate excuse for unfaithful work, and above all an opportunity for the sharp-witted boy to play the college against the high school at the expense of both. Many of the boys admitted with heavy conditions even in the stronger institutions come from first-class high schools and academies, to which they should have been returned until they were ready for college. Some who were not able to make creditable marks in high schools sought and obtained entrance to college after a half-completed course. In one case a candidate for admission as a special student frankly gave as a reason for his application the fact that he had failed to pass the entrance examinations. The sympathetic committee was unable to turn away from so ingenuous a plea. He was admitted.

The tables on pages 114-188 indicate the variations in regard to the time in which deficiencies must be removed. In many cases the catalogue is silent with respect to this matter. At Tulane three years are allowed for the removal of entrance conditions; at the University of Pittsburgh two years; and at the University of Kansas one year. At the University of Alabama the deficiencies must be removed within a "reasonable time;" at the University of Oklahoma they must be removed as rapidly as the "committee may think best;" and at Drake University they must be removed "at once." These details are interesting in bringing out the confusion and the varying attempts to solve a difficult problem.

But the provisions by which the deficiencies may be removed, apart from the element of time, are of more serious importance. At institutions which maintain preparatory departments, such as Oberlin and Iowa College, the difficulty is easily met; and similarly by institutions which arrange special classes in preparatory work. But the disadvantages of combining college work and high-school work are too numerous for discussion here, and as colleges grow in strength they tend to discontinue all preparatory classes.

A number of colleges and universities have attempted to overcome the difficulty

by stated examinations. Experience, however, has shown objections to this plan. First, the expense of a competent tutor to the student; second, the double disadvantage of meagre preparation for college work, and a twofold schedule in the college and in the secondary school is apt to bring discouragement or failure to a student of ability. The result has been that both the tutoring and the examinations are perfunctory.

Harvard University has adopted a plan by which college courses may be "sacrificed" for certain courses required for admission; college work is accepted for entrance credit. Thus, a boy who fails in the examination in Virgil may satisfy the requirement by passing in *Latin B* of the Harvard curriculum. In this case *Latin B* is not credited to the boy toward his degree. At the University of Texas two-thirds of a university course absolves an entrance condition of one unit.

At Columbia an arrangement somewhat similar to the Harvard plan prevails. But if the student makes a fairly creditable failure in the entrance examination, he need not "sacrifice" the cognate college course in order to remove the condition. Thus if a boy fails with a percentage of 35 in Virgil and is able to pass in freshman Latin with a grade of A, B, or C, he satisfies the entrance condition and at the same time receives credit toward his college degree. Until the present year it was possible for a boy to remove an entrance condition in this manner, although he had never attempted to pass the examination.

Obviously the adjustment between the college and the school is not perfect, but leniency on the part of the college does not improve the situation. The difficulty arises from the lack of clearness as to just what the entrance requirements actually denote. The catalogue statements represent them as indispensable. "A student who wishes to enter college *must pass*" such and such examinations for admission. It is not stated just why the particular requirements are set up as thus fundamental, but one of two theories is to be implied: the requirements embody an indispensable minimum of knowledge, or they represent an indispensable minimum of training. In other words, an ordinary boy, in order to have a good chance of success in college, must either know the ground covered by the requirements, or he must at least have had the mental drill to be obtained through the mastery of the requirements.

In either event, the college is illogical when, after thus setting up its minimum, it proceeds freely to make exceptions to it. The records show that a large part of the incoming class has conditions, varying from one to five or six, and sometimes more. In the face of such administration, it is impossible to maintain that the entrance requirements are a real minimum; they are at best an ostensible minimum, any part of which is liable in most colleges to temporary suspension, and occasionally to complete abrogation.

It would seem that, to bring order out of this chaotic situation, it is necessary, first, to decide what the minimum is actually meant to accomplish, and second, what

it must embody in order to achieve this purpose. So much being clear it must be enforced as the *sine qua non*. Such a minimum would not be by itself the basis of college entrance, but an inevitable preliminary thereto. The student should unquestionably be required to do much more than this minimum before being admitted. In determining the content and extent of the additional studies, an entirely new set of considerations enters. The present arrangement fails to distinguish the general from the individual factor. In consequence, the entire situation is involved in confusion, the one sure result of which is to habituate young students to notions of promotion, despite superficiality and failure, now in this subject, now in that. The knowledge of every college candidate supplies him with a succession of instances of admission in which the stated stipulations are broken.

The special student is on a somewhat different basis. This provision is more in the nature of an equity proceeding, designed to supply a certain degree of elasticity to an otherwise rigid system of entrance examinations. It furnishes a way of meeting the needs of mature and serious persons who for one reason or another have not pursued the regular educational routine and who, through extraordinary effort, have won a second chance; their seriousness of purpose, their maturity in development, amply compensate a technical deficiency in entrance units. No sensible person would propose to exclude from academic privilege the student who relatively late in life, and after a sobering experience, thus gains access to collegiate opportunities.

An analysis of the special student enrolment, however, discloses the fact that, instead of being limited to the use just indicated, the classification in question has likewise become a means of reducing or of evading entirely the entrance requirements. Unsuccessful candidates for admission urge, and the college agrees, that a system of entrance examinations does injustice to certain individuals temperamentally unsuited to display their acquisitions through written examinations. There is no doubt that this at times happens—though by no means usually in the cases in which it is alleged to have occurred. But in any event the remedy fails. Further, it is urged that through admission as special students college advantages may be extended to those who have had no access to adequate secondary schools. Whatever merit this contention may once have had, it has now lost most of its force. The enrolment of special students has increased, though the cogency of the argument has steadily diminished.

The terms in which college catalogues usually handle this subject are so vague that one is prepared to encounter great laxity and inconsistency in the actual administration. Harvard requires 16 units for entrance; but it admits as specials, without examination, students who are fit "to pursue the particular courses they elect." Out of 2277 undergraduates, there are 231 specials. The Johns Hopkins University requires 15 units for entrance; it admits with 8 units those "qualified by age, character, attainments, and habits of study." Out of 165 undergraduates, 23 are specials. The University of Pennsylvania requires 14.5 units for entrance; but it admits spe-

cials on certificates covering requirements for desired courses only. Out of 299 students in liberal arts, 85 entered on these terms. Adelphi College requires 14.5 units; but it admits "specials" of mature age on "satisfactory evidence of proficiency," and in consequence it has 52 unclassified students out of a total of 170.

It is clear that vague descriptions such as I have quoted will not bar out unfit, undeserving, and incompetent applicants. If the regular procedure is in danger of being suspended in behalf of candidates who allege that they are mature and qualified, quoting the local clergyman and the family physician in support of the allegation, the college must create some effective machinery for intelligently and severely passing on such applications. A faculty committee, which for administrative purposes is liable to reduce itself to a secretary, acting on a few written documents submitted by the candidate himself, cannot avoid or effectively check abuse. In consequence, a measure designed to relieve mature workers of tests no longer important to them has become a back door for the admission of a miscellaneous collection of students of all ages and types, many of them boys of average freshman age, who did not realize the clumsiness or difficulty of admission requirements until they themselves had failed to meet them.

The facts recited above are suggestive. They may indicate any one of several things. For instance, the desire for numbers being keen, lax provisions for the admission of special and of conditioned students may mean that a rigidly enforced entrance standard would threaten seriously to cut down enrolment, and that extraordinary measures have been devised to offset their effect. If this view is correct, the college has embarked upon a dangerous course which threatens its sincerity and its efficiency. Or again, the facts may signify that there is no very close connection between fulfilled requirements and college performance; in which case it is held wise to admit deficient students of average age, or older, and to wipe out their deficiencies by some other method than through the entrance machinery. If this be true, it is time, not to make exceptions that confuse all standards and demoralize students, but seriously to face the problem of organizing preparatory education on a basis that is really vital and indispensable, and of devising machinery capable of enforcing it. It is bad pedagogical procedure to tell the prospective candidate that entrance to college involves a specific previous achievement, and then to familiarize him with the spectacle of frequent cases in which he learns that the terms have been partly or wholly waived. The ethical and scholarly standards would be higher if a less pretentious requirement were unflinchingly enforced.

The Carnegie Foundation will ask the coöperation of all accepted institutions in making a complete exposition of the status of conditioned and special students who are admitted in 1909. In the following data the requirements for admission and the student enrolment are for the liberal arts departments only, unless otherwise specified.

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**REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF
SPECIAL STUDENTS**

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

www.libtool.com.cn INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
AMHERST COLLEGE Amherst, Massachusetts	14	"Each case is considered on its merits."	Two years	
BATES COLLEGE Lewiston, Maine	14	No information		
BELOIT COLLEGE Beloit, Wisconsin	14.9	13.9 ¹		"No student will be matriculated as a member of the college until he has completely fulfilled all the requirements of admission."
BOWDOIN COLLEGE Brunswick, Maine	14	No information		
CARLETON COLLEGE Northfield, Minnesota	14	12.5		Sub-freshman classes and examinations.
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE Cleveland, Ohio	14	12	One year	No conditions allowed in algebra and plane geometry.
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Danville, Kentucky	14	11	"Can be made up in the first two years."	Extra studies in college
CLARK UNIVERSITY Worcester, Massachusetts	14	No information		
CLARESON MEMORIAL SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY, Potadam, New York	14.4	11.4	One year	Examinations
COLORADO COLLEGE Colorado Springs, Colorado	15	No information		
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY New York, New York	14.5	No specific information		Mark C, B, or A obtained in continuation of subject at end of first half year, or else formal examination.

¹Six of these units must be of the eight units in required subjects.

SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

www.libto.org Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Under-graduates	Remarks
11.5 units		18	508	"Special students shall take as many courses as are taken by required students." Must take regular required studies the first year; after that, course elective.
Admitted under direction of the committee on registration.		2	488	Special students must take fifteen hours a week and are subject to same regulations as to attendance and examinations as regular students.
No such classification		0	300	"Students in special courses are not received."
"Evidence . . . of earnestness of purpose and adequate preparation."	Persons of maturity	28	308	
14 units		7	289	Special students "may take college studies under the direction of the Faculty."
College course		12	440 ^a	"Special students as a rule are not admitted. . . . College graduates . . . will be allowed to select such subjects as they are prepared to take. The work must be arranged by the committee on graduate and irregular students."
"Requisite preliminary training for desired courses."	"Mature persons"	14	144	Except for satisfactory reasons special students must take fifteen hours a week. They are subject to the same regulations as to attendance and examinations.
No information			No list of students.	
Must show, by examination or certificate, sufficient preparation for courses desired.		1	97 ^a	"Special students . . . must register for at least ten semester hours, but are not allowed without permission of the Faculty to register for more than eighteen hours . . . per week."
"Received at the discretion of the faculty."			No list of students.	Special students "must attend the examinations as well as the ordinary recitations of their classes, subject to the same conditions as other students."
14.5 units	18 years	56 ^b	607 ^a	Applications from men of maturity are considered on their own merits.

^aTotal registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.

^bColumbia College only.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

www.libtool.com.cn		Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
CORNELL UNIVERSITY Ithaca, New York	15	Decided by faculty concerned.	One year	Must "take necessary instruction outside the university."
DALHOUSIE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY Halifax, Nova Scotia		No information		
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE Hanover, New Hampshire	14.5	No information		
DICKINSON COLLEGE Carlisle, Pennsylvania	14	No specific information		"Special" students until conditions are removed. Thirteen in catalogue, all in list of freshmen.
DRAKE UNIVERSITY Des Moines, Iowa	15	13	"At once"	Must make up required preparatory work "without receiving college credit therefor."
DRURY COLLEGE Springfield, Missouri	15	12 ¹		"Classical students deficient in Greek can remove their deficiency by taking elementary Greek in the college."
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA Franklin, Indiana	14	Each case decided by faculty committee on adjustments.		"Opportunity will be given" deficient students to "receive adequate instruction in these branches in which they may be lacking in preparation."
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Washington, D. C.	14.5	No information		
HAMILTON COLLEGE Clinton, New York	14	No specific information	One term; otherwise each condition counted a "three-hour delinquency."	"College reserves the right to admit with conditions... and it will reduce conditioning to a minimum." Made up under programs of study directed by depts. concerned.
HARVARD UNIVERSITY Cambridge, Massachusetts	16	"Vary with individual records."	One year	Extra college work, or examinations. In hands of committee on admissions.
HOBART COLLEGE Geneva, New York	14.4	No information		

¹ Condition in Greek for classical students the only information in catalogue.

SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.org Regulations for Admission of Special Students

<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
"Ability to do creditably special work."	23 years	20	791	"Special students are subject to the same regulations in regard to examinations and number of hours as students in the other courses."
Evidence of satisfactory course of school instruction.	19 years	32	220	
"Satisfactory credentials and testimonials."	"Qualified by age, character, practical experience, and habits of study."		1102	Special students "do specialized work of an advanced character."
Full preparation required in English and one other subject.		22	296	"Subject to same regulations as regular students."
Must take examinations prerequisite to desired courses.	21 years		No list of students.	Special students are subject to the same regulations as to attendance, examination, amount of work, etc., as regular students.
Ten units or "mature judgment and experience."		41	187	"Special students are subject to all regulations of the college and are received conditionally."
No information		15	222	
"Familiarity" with the studies preliminary to those desired.	"Suitable age and attainments."	72	205	
"As far ahead of our entrance requirements in some subjects as he is behind in others."	"Men adequately . . . prepared . . . to undertake maturer courses."	3	185	Special students "must elect not less than fifteen hours a week."
"Fitness to pursue the particular courses they elect."		231	2277	Subject to all the regulations of the college.
High school diploma amounting to 12.5 units, 3 of which must be English.		15	108	Special students must take at least twelve hours a week, including freshman English, and such other courses as they may wish with the approval of the dean select.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

www.libtool.com.cn		Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
IOWA COLLEGE Grinnell, Iowa	14	12	Two years	Academy
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY Baltimore, Maryland	15	At discretion of committee on admissions.		
KNOX COLLEGE Galesburg, Illinois	14	12.5 ¹	Two years; sooner if possible.	Academy or college
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY Appleton, Wisconsin	14	No information		
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY South Bethlehem, Pennsylvania	14.5	No information		
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY Stanford University, California	15	No specific information		"After matriculation additional entrance units may be offered only for the purpose of making up entrance deficiencies."
MCGILL UNIVERSITY Montreal, Quebec		No specific information ²	One year	Fourteen conditioned students. Special classes ³ and subsequent matriculation examinations.
MARIETTA COLLEGE Marietta, Ohio	15	12	Three years	Academy and summer school. With only 12 units "it will ordinarily be best to take another year of preparation."
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Boston, Massachusetts	14	"Failing in one or two examination subjects."	One half year	Examinations
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE Middlebury, Vermont	14	No specific information	One year	
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE South Hadley, Massachusetts	14	No specific information		"Candidates will not be admitted if heavily conditioned in one of the following subjects: Mathematics, Latin, Greek, French, German, English."

¹ Must include 2 units in English, in a foreign language, and in mathematics.

² Conditioned upon failure to pass "in small part of whole examination" if general standing is sufficiently high.

³ Required for those conditioned in a language.

SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
			468	No provision in catalogue for special students.
8 units	"Qualified by age, character, attainments, and habits of study."	23	165	"Admitted to a limited number of undergraduate courses."
Certificate of high school work equivalent to entrance requirements.		37	277	"Persons of serious purpose and of mature years" may become special students without meeting the entrance requirements. Subject to same regulations as to examinations, etc., as regular students.
Qualification to pursue subject desired.		18	341	
No information		0 ⁴	29	
Five units for those under 25 years of age, not graduates of approved high schools.	21 years	99 ⁵	1513 ⁶	No women are admitted as special students.
Persons under 18 years of age must present certificates of a satisfactory school course.	18 years	116 ⁷	382 ⁷	
No specific information			125	
Satisfactory evidence, by examination or otherwise, of qualification to pursue desired subjects.	17 years	508 ^{8,9}	1410 ¹⁰	Teachers and persons of mature age engaged in technical pursuits are admitted with entrance examinations. They must attend same exercises and examinations as regular students.
No provision in catalogue for special students.			203	
14 units		1	705	"Students over 21 years of age who have taught at least three years... may elect any courses offered," provided that they have prerequisite preparation for the courses concerned.

⁴ Six special students in engineering courses out of total enrolment of 644. ⁵ Special students in all undergraduate departments.

⁶ Total number undergraduates.

⁷ McGill College only.

⁸ "A large part of the special students become regular."

⁹ "Partial students;" no special students.

¹⁰ Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

www.libtool.com.cn		Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY New York, New York	15.5	No specific information		"Entrance conditions shall be regarded as deficiencies after the beginning of the second term of the freshman year."
OSERLIN COLLEGE Oberlin, Ohio	14	13	Two years; one year if possible.	Academy and summer session
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Brooklyn, New York	14.5	11.5		
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY Princeton, New Jersey	15.8	No specific information		Examinations in December, and also regular entrance examinations in June and September.
RADOLIFFE COLLEGE Cambridge, Massachusetts	16			Same requirements for admission as Harvard College.
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE Lynchburg, Virginia	14.5	10.5	Two years	
RIPON COLLEGE Ripon, Wisconsin	14	No specific information		Special classes
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Terre Haute, Indiana	15	No information		
SMITH COLLEGE Northampton, Massachusetts	14.5	No information		
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY Hoboken, New Jersey	14	At discretion of committee on entrance examinations.	One year	
TRINITY COLLEGE Hartford, Connecticut	14	10	Two years	Ten units the minimum; each case is decided on its own merits. No information as to removal of conditions.

SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Under-graduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
No specific information		3	196	
"Equivalent of requirements for admission to freshman class."		72	801	"Under the same regulations as other students." "Academy specials" are a third class not meeting the entrance requirements, but permitted to take certain college courses which they are fitted to pursue.
Evidence of preparation for special courses and "general training."		9	184	
Regular entrance examinations upon subjects prerequisite to desired courses.		11	658	Time must be fully employed; subject to same regulations, discipline, and examinations as regular students.
"Smaller number of units than are called for in the full requirements."		78	362	Persons "of mature age" are admitted without examination. All special students admitted "at the discretion of the academic board," and all must take four courses of study.
10.5 units	18 years	Not separated from candidates for degrees.	363	Special students must take at least nine hours a week in departments of history, languages, science, mathematics, or philosophy. Teachers, etc., over 30 years of age, may be admitted to classes for which they are prepared, without passing entrance examinations.
"Evidence of ability"		2	202	
Graduates with bachelor's degrees from institutions of recognized standing.			229 ¹	
No such classification			1473	
No such classification			429 ¹	
10 units		1	205	Special students must take at least twelve hours a week. "Special non-matriculated students" are men of mature age who take courses as non-resident students. Nine of these.

¹ Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

www.libtool.com.cn INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		<i>Minimum number of Units required for admission</i>	<i>Time in which deficiencies must be removed</i>	<i>Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks</i>
TUFTS COLLEGE Tufts College, Massachusetts	14.6	No information		
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA New Orleans, Louisiana	14.4	11.4	Three years	Entrance examinations within one year or elementary courses in university.
UNION COLLEGE Schenectady, New York	14.3	No specific information	If deficiencies are not removed in first year, the student is classed as "irregular."	Stated examinations
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI Cincinnati, Ohio	15	13	One year	"Examination at a regular entrance examination."
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	14.5	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania	15	No specific information	Two years	Conditions must not be heavy enough to hinder progress.
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER Rochester, New York	14	No specific information	"Time specified by the examiners; not more than one year."	"Faculty may... require that the deficiencies be made up under a specified tutor."
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT Burlington, Vermont	14.5	No specific information		Examinations in June and in September.
VASSAR COLLEGE Poughkeepsie, New York	14.5	No information		
WARREN COLLEGE Crawfordsville, Indiana	14	12	One year	College courses
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE Washington, Pennsylvania	14	Condition not allowed in more than one language.	Such time as the faculty will allow.	Special class for condition in a language or in physics. "Other deficiencies... may be made up privately."

SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
"Ability to pursue the work."		32	208	Special students must make up a "plan of study... subject to the approval of the major instructor."
No specific information ¹	20 years	36	107	"Irregular students" are a third class, entering by examination or certificate, taking elective courses not leading to a degree. These are admitted only at the discretion of the faculty or dean.
			263	"Irregular students" are those so deficient that they are dropped from their class; they have no college privileges.
"Documentary evidence ... of their ability to carry on" the desired courses.	20 years	180	511	There are also nine "irregular" students. These have satisfied the entrance requirements, but elect less than twelve hours a week.
Certificate covering prescribed requirements for desired courses.		35	299	"Special" students take a course leading to a certificate of proficiency; "partial" students pursue "such individual subjects as they are competent to take."
Examinations to show qualifications to enter desired subjects.		21	81	
Examination or certificate covering 14 units; to include complete entrance examination in desired subjects.		54	362	
"Suitable... attainments"	"Suitable age"	10	117	"Entitled to the privileges and subject to all the regulations of the university."
14.5 units		8	989	"Teachers who present satisfactory testimonials in regard to their success in teaching and their proficiency as students may be received without examinations."
Examination in English composition, or "to take this course as a part of their work."		40	342	No special students beyond sophomore year who have not passed entrance examinations.
Examinations for special subjects.		41	259	Must take fifteen hours a week.

¹ Special students may, at the discretion of the dean, be required to "stand the entrance examination in English."

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED AND OF

www.libtool.com.cn INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY Saint Louis, Missouri	14.5	19.5	"Subsequently as may be arranged."	Extra courses in freshman year.
WELLESLEY COLLEGE Wellesley, Massachusetts	14.5	Cannot be conditioned in two, or heavily in one, of following subjects: Latin, Greek, French, German, mathematics, chemistry, physics.		
WELLS COLLEGE Aurora, New York	14.5	No information		
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY Cleveland, Ohio	15	No information	Two years	
WILLIAMS COLLEGE Williamstown, Massachusetts	14.5	No information		
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE Worcester, Massachusetts	14	No information		
YALE UNIVERSITY New Haven, Connecticut	14.5	No information		

SPECIAL STUDENTS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

<i>Minimum requirements for admission</i>	<i>Restrictions in regard to Age</i>	<i>Special Students enrolled</i>	<i>Total number of Undergraduates</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
(a) Certificate or examination to show preparation for desired courses. (b) Graduation from accredited secondary school.	(a) 20 years (b) Under 20 years	42	335	
Must satisfy requirements of departments they wish to enter.	"Persons of experience and success in teaching."	8	1184	Persons of less maturity must meet the regular entrance requirements, or their equivalents, and satisfy such additional requirements as are prescribed by the departments they wish to enter."
Satisfactory evidence of success in their profession.	Teachers		169	"Other special students are not received."
Entrance requirements or equivalent.		14 ¹	277 ¹	Admitted to "only those courses for which their previous training has fitted them."
10 units		20	472	"Partial" students are expected to make up, as soon as practicable, the necessary work to gain admission to regular course.
No information			445 ²	
No information for Yale College.			1816	

¹ Adelbert College only.

² Total registration in institution; no college of liberal arts.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA University, Alabama	10.5	No specific information	"Reasonable time"	Private instruction
UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA Tucson, Arizona	15	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF ARKANSAS Fayetteville, Arkansas	9.5	7.5		"Allowed to make up his deficiencies."
UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA Berkeley, California	15	No specific information		"Rank of second grade" in continuation of conditioned subject may remove the condition. Entrance examinations in August and January.
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO Boulder, Colorado	15	18		
UNIVERSITY OF THE STATE OF FLORIDA Gainesville, Florida	9.9	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA Athens, Georgia	11.8	8.8	Two years	Private study or additional work at the university.
UNIVERSITY OF IDAHO Moscow, Idaho	15	18	Two years	State preparatory school
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS Urbana, Illinois	15	No information		
INDIANA UNIVERSITY Bloomington, Indiana	15	18	Three years	Work in course

AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

www.libtel.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
Entrance examinations in English, mathematics, and one other subject. About 8 units.	"Mature age"	15	264	
"Sufficient preparation"	"Mature age"	18	64	
Completion of all studies below freshman class if under 21 years of age.	21 years	35	558	Subject to same regulations and to same examinations as regular students.
Fifteen units in any preparatory subjects; or examinations for courses desired.	21 years	141	1247	"Students at large" take such work as they are prepared for, having full-time programs. "Special students" take partial courses. "Limited students" take less work than regular students.
"Qualified to do special work."	21 years	32	532	
Qualification to pursue studies desired.		8 ¹	69 ²	"No student shall take less than 15 hours a week."
No specific information	19 years	31	156	
Satisfactory evidence of ability to do the work.	21 years	11	243	
"Substantially prepared for work of college grade in their chosen fields."	21 years	54	760	May not enroll for more than two years except by special permission.
Special examinations, including English composition.	21 years	Not listed	1689	

¹Special students in all undergraduate departments.

²Total number undergraduates.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

www.libtool.com.cn		Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA Iowa City, Iowa	15	18.5	One year	University, accredited preparatory schools, or college tutors. If conditions exceed 1.5 units students are "unclassified" until deficiencies are made up.
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS Lawrence, Kansas	15	13 With restrictions as to distributions of conditions.	One year	Extra work in the university.
STATE UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY Lexington, Kentucky	18.5	No information		
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY Baton Rouge, Louisiana	9.1	6.1		Stated examinations
UNIVERSITY OF MAINE Orono, Maine	14	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN Ann Arbor, Michigan	15	"At discretion of the faculty."	One year	Regular admission examinations.
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA Minneapolis, Minnesota	14	12.5	One year	
UNIVERSITY OF MISSISSIPPI University, Mississippi	11	9	"Later"	Extra courses in the university.
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI Columbia, Missouri	15	13	One year	Arranged by committee on entrance.
UNIVERSITY OF MONTANA Missoula, Montana	15	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA Lincoln, Nebraska	14	11		

AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
Fifteen units if under 21 years of age.	21 years	192	948	
"Satisfactory evidence of proper preparation."	"Mature years"	123	899	
"Ability to do proposed work."	21 years	17	494	
Special fitness for courses desired.	18 years	48	442	
Examination in particular desired subjects.	"Unusual maturity and previous advancement in particular subjects."	56	549	
Examination in rudiments of English grammar.	21 years	58	1660	
14 units Exceptions only upon vote of the faculty.		84	1344	Must take same number of hours as regular students.
No information		6 ¹	339 ²	
Special examinations	21 years	48	877	A third class, "Hearers," have no requirements for admission and do not have to take examinations in course, as do regular and special students.
No information		8	181	
No specific information	"Suitable age"	191	1050	Students in the School of Fine Arts and in the School of Music, and teachers in the city schools, may also be admitted as "unclassified" students.

¹Special students in all undergraduate departments.

²Total number undergraduates.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
		Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
UNIVERSITY OF NEVADA Reno, Nevada	12	11	One year	A "limited" freshman may have more than 1 unit but less than 2.1 condition, but must make up half his deficiencies in the university high school. A "partial" freshman may have more than 2.2 units conditions, but must register in the university high school and for partial work as a freshman.
UNIVERSITY OF NEW MEXICO Albuquerque, New Mexico	15	13		Preparatory school
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA Chapel Hill, North Carolina	15	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA University, North Dakota	15	No specific information	One year	Model school
OHIO UNIVERSITY Athens, Ohio	12	No information		
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY Columbus, Ohio	15	No specific information	2 years	(a) Stated examinations. (b) Substitution of excess work. (c) Substitution of equivalent work.
MIAMI UNIVERSITY Oxford, Ohio	12	10	No limit	
STATE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA Norman, Oklahoma	15	13	"As rapidly as the enrolling committee may think best."	(a) College courses. (b) University preparatory school for conditions in prescribed subjects.
UNIVERSITY OF OREGON Eugene, Oregon	14	13	One year if possible.	

AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
No specific information	20 years	28	62	Admitted on recommendation of the professor under whom special studies are to be taken.
Qualification to pursue studies desired.		8	51	
15 units		Not listed	507	
		22	125	Special students "freely admitted;" they must take enough work to occupy their time.
No information		40	376	
Fifteen units, or such credit for subjects as may be necessary to qualify them for the classes they wish to enter.	21 years	49	630	
Twelve units if under 20 years of age; otherwise "satisfactory evidence of fitness."	20 years	26	308	
"Satisfactory evidence" of ability.	21 years	67 ¹	191	
(a) 14 units (b) "Satisfactory credentials and testimonials."	(a) Qualified by age, character, etc. (b) 20 years, or teachers.	Not listed	304	

¹ Includes conditioned freshmen.

REGULATIONS FOR THE ADMISSION OF CONDITIONED

www.libtool.com.cn		Regulations for Admission of Conditioned Students		
INSTITUTION	No. of Units required for regular admission	Minimum number of Units required for admission	Time in which deficiencies must be removed	Provisions for removal of deficiencies and remarks
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA Columbia, South Carolina	8	"Majority" of requirements	"Such probation as may seem best in each individual case."	Extra work in university which the "faculty may require."
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA Vermillion, South Dakota	14	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE Knoxville, Tennessee	11.5	8.5	One year	
UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS Austin, Texas	13.8	10.3 No conditions allowed in English, mathematics, or history.	"As soon as possible."	Examinations or by extra work in the university, two thirds of a university course absolving one entrance unit.
UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO Toronto, Ontario		No specific information	Two years	
UNIVERSITY OF UTAH Salt Lake City, Utah	15	13	One year	University preparatory school
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA Charlottesville, Virginia	11.5	Conditions must not be enough to "impair integrity of academic work."	One year	No student "will be conditioned except upon subjects actually taught" in the university.
UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON Seattle, Washington	14	No information		
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY Morgantown, West Virginia	12	11	One year	"No student shall be classified beyond the freshman class until all preparatory conditions are removed." Method of removal not given.
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN Madison, Wisconsin	14	No information		
UNIVERSITY OF WYOMING Laramie, Wyoming	14.5	No information		

AND OF SPECIAL STUDENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES (CONTINUED)

www.libtool.com.cn

Regulations for Admission of Special Students

Minimum requirements for admission	Restrictions in regard to Age	Special Students enrolled	Total number of Undergraduates	Remarks
No information		34	180	
"Satisfactory evidence of their fitness to pursue with profit the studies selected."		29	151	Work "credited upon the requirements for a degree only upon action of the faculty."
No specific information	21 years	71	348	Select courses "under the direction of the faculty."
No specific information	Twenty-one years unless "mature for their age and serious-minded."	60	922	"Special students" take less than four courses; "irregular" students take four or more courses, but without reference to prescribed work; they are, however, classified with the regular students.
"Must satisfy the instructor of their competence to undertake the work."	19 years	137 ¹	942 ¹	
"Satisfactory evidence of ability to pursue the desired studies advantageously."		112	612	
"Specific entrance requirements as prescribed for the courses elected by them."	20 years	Not listed	325	
"Satisfactory evidence," etc. Credentials as to previous work demanded.	19 years	99	779	"Students will not be admitted from accredited schools as special students unless they have graduated, or have not been in attendance for the previous year."
"Their own statement, that they are prepared to take the work."	"21 years as a rule"	52	207	"Subject... to the usual rules relating to registration and scholarship."
Evidence of ability to do desired work advantageously.	21 years	78	1535	
	"Mature years."	3	29	

¹ University College only.

CLASS-ROOM AND LABORATORY INSTRUCTION BY TEACHERS

No part of the data asked for by the Foundation this year from the accepted institutions and the state universities caused more discussion and difficulty than the request for the exact number of periods per week taught by each member of the various instructing staffs. Seventy-seven carefully detailed reports were made to the Foundation. In some of the institutions the data were not on record in the administrative office, and in some few cases where they were obtainable they were given with little care and had to be disregarded. The information cannot be taken with any degree of certainty from the college catalogue, for, while the catalogue indicates the courses in which a teacher's work lies, it does not indicate the exact division of work between several teachers in one course.

It was necessary, therefore, in many instances to ask heads of departments to make reports concerning the exact amount of teaching given by each member of their respective departments. When the information came from the professors themselves it was usually accompanied by explanations which cautioned against the use of the figures as indicative of the actual work of college men. For example: "I beg to point out that in no case do these figures fairly represent the university work performed by the teachers in this department, for no account whatever is taken of the large but indeterminate number of hours given to personal consultation with students. In some instances such personal consultation constitutes a large part of the work." Again: "As has more than once been pointed out in faculty meetings, the term *hour* is a very uncertain unit. I have tried, for instance, to equalize the work of the assistants; but I believe that Mr. ——'s fifteen hours represent more than Mr. ——'s eighteen. In my own case, the eighteen hours of the second term represent, perhaps, not more than one half of the work required for the twenty-three of the first."

These cautions against an overvaluation of "mechanical measure of hours" emphasize, especially, four ideas: First, that the nature of the teaching itself should be considered, that the preparation for the class-room is as significant a part of the teacher's duty as are the recitations. Thus, it is to be expected that more time is required in the preparation of lectures than in the preparation for text-book recitations such as occur in elementary modern language classes. Second, the number of courses which an instructor offers at one time is quite as essential an element in the consideration as the number of periods of class-room work. More time, it is urged, is required to offer one two-hour course and one three-hour course than to offer one five-hour course. Third, the number of recitation periods that are "repeated" each week should be taken into account, and the amount of work which the instructor offers in the same form from year to year. Fourth, the reading of themes and papers and consultation with students are time-consuming duties not easily estimated in hours; and of many teachers time is also required in administration.

These difficulties arise even when courses are considered in which there is no labo-

ratory work. The introduction of laboratory instruction makes the problem still more complex. On pages 142 and 143 are tables giving in condensed form the average number of recitation periods given by professors, assistant professors or associate professors, and instructors for the seventy-seven institutions making full reports. The departments selected for these tables are English, mathematics, Latin, Greek, French, German, history, and philosophy. These departments were chosen because they are found in nearly all of the colleges and universities, and because there is practically no laboratory work in connection with them.

A brief explanation of the compilation seems necessary. First, all marked irregularities have been excluded. If a dean of a college, for example, is also a professor and his time largely taken up by his duties as dean, his service as a teacher is not included in the average. Such a man is primarily an executive officer rather than a teacher. Second, in instances where there is more than one professor, assistant professor, or instructor, in a department, the average for each grade is given for that department. Adjunct professors and associate professors have been counted as assistant professors. At the bottom of each division of the table is given the average number of periods of instruction for each department under consideration.

One interesting generalization warranted by the folders of the institutions from which these tables were compiled, is that in each institution there is a careful balancing of work among the departments. Thus, if a professor of history teaches fifteen periods a week, a professor of political science in that institution will closely approximate the same amount of teaching. One college, it seemed, had devised an absolute system by which all professors teach eighteen hours per week, irrespective of the nature of the work.

Another point which is not brought out by the tables in their present condensed form is that a marked difference exists between the amount of actual teaching by professors in small colleges and professors in universities, especially in universities where attention is given to graduate work. The professors in the colleges carry the heavier load of class-room work. In the table on page 136 is given a group of representative small colleges and a group of universities; and for certain departments the amount of teaching in these institutions is compared.

The variation as illustrated by the averages of the two parts of the table is most striking. The professors in the colleges teach from 6.5 to 9.1 more hours per week than the professors in the universities, or they devote 47 per cent more time to class-room work. This variation is probably due to many causes: First, in small colleges more frequently than in universities the professors are called upon to make a "sacrifice of overwork" because of increased attendance without corresponding increase of support. But there is a more significant reason for the difference. In the universities the value of research work is emphasized. A professor in a university of the first class must be more than a good teacher; he must also be a productive scholar.

There are no written laws which govern a professor's hours of study, nor are there,

**TABULAR COMPARISON OF AMOUNT OF TEACHING GIVEN BY
PROFESSORS IN UNIVERSITIES AND IN SMALL COLLEGES**

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UNIVERSITIES	Under each department is given the average number of periods of instruction per week taught by professors in these departments for the institutions named.							
	<i>English</i>	<i>Mathematics</i>	<i>Latin</i>	<i>Greek</i>	<i>French</i>	<i>German</i>	<i>History</i>	<i>Philosophy</i>
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	8.3	10	9.5	9.5	10.3	9	8	8
CORNELL UNIVERSITY	11	13.4	10.5	8	9	9	10.5	7.5
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY	7.6	5.5	7.5	5	6	7.5	5.5	6
LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY	8	8	10	9	12.5	10.3	7.7
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY	7.7	10.3	10.6	12	10
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA	6.5	12	12	8.5	5	4	7	6
YALE UNIVERSITY	12.2	9.8	10.5	10.3	15.5	12.7	11	10
<i>Average</i>	8.7	9.8	10	8.9	9.7	8.7	8.3	7.9

COLLEGES

CARLETON COLLEGE	16	12	21	20	20	18
FRANKLIN COLLEGE (INDIANA).....	16	20	20	20	20	20	15
LAWRENCE UNIVERSITY	16	18	15	18	16	10	15	15
MARIETTA COLLEGE.....	18	15	21	21	18	12
RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE	18	18	18	18	18	18	18	18
RIPON COLLEGE	12.5	18	19	14	18	18	12	11
WARREN COLLEGE	10	16	16	16	16	16	16
<i>Average</i>	15.2	17	17	16.8	18.4	16.7	15.6	14.8

as a rule, laws which dictate the amount of his teaching in "mechanical hours;" but in some institutions there is an atmosphere as effective as regulations can be in regard to these matters. Especially is this true with reference to study and investigation apart from the necessary work of this kind in teaching. At Columbia University, for example, a professor aims to contribute from time to time to the learning of his special field and by so doing to add to his own distinction as a scholar and to the dignity of his university. Each member of the faculty makes each year a semi-official report of such work to the university. An atmosphere conducive to productive scholarship, however, does not usually exist except in large centres of population; libraries, music, art galleries, and association with men engaged in activities outside of the academic world are all needed accessories to it. Most of the large universities have realized their opportunity to become centres of scholarship and have, therefore, adjusted the amount of teaching required of the individual professor on a basis lower than that college whose sphere is more distinctly undergraduate. At Johns Hopkins University the least number of periods of instruction weekly is required of the instructing staff. The work here is almost entirely graduate.

It is entirely aside from the province of these statistics to compare the actual amount of work between professors in universities and in small colleges. The two groups of institutions are not seeking to cover the same field of education. The data indicate a difference in kind of work.

When the element of laboratory instruction is introduced the problem becomes more complex. It is difficult, or impossible, to obtain a relative value between recitation periods and laboratory periods from a teacher's point of view. The practice in conducting scientific courses varies widely. At Trinity College (Hartford), for example, the professor of physics gives twelve recitations per week and five laboratory periods; at the Case School of Applied Science the figures for the same subject are seven recitations and twelve laboratory periods. The following table gives the averages for the two groups of institutions, taking into account only the work of full professors. It will be noted here, as in the data for the non-laboratory courses, that the work in actual teaching is slightly heavier in the state institutions.

	Physics		Chemistry		Engineering		Biology		Geology	
	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.	Rec.	Lab.
ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	8.8	7.3	7.8	8.7	9.4	5.4	7.5	5.7	7.8	5
STATE UNIVERSITIES	9.3	6.9	9.2	10	10.8	9.6	8.3	10	10.5	5.4

The figures for the amount of teaching in professional schools of law and medicine are of special interest. They indicate the tendency of men in these departments

to devote part of their time to teaching and part to the practice of their professions. Men who are primarily teachers in these fields desire to keep in touch with the active life of their professions by a small amount of practice; and men who are primarily practicing physicians or lawyers and really devoted to their professions are glad to devote a small part of their time to research and teaching. The result is that in the cities, at least, there are few men who are purely teachers of law or of medicine.

The professional schools have been quick to take advantage of this situation and to secure through it a large amount of instruction at a nominal cost or at no cost. At Washington University, for example, there are 30 men on the instructing staff in the medical department. Five of these men receive a salary and teach, on an average, 14.2 periods per week. The other 25 receive no salary and teach, on an average, 3.5 periods a week. At Drake University the medical faculty is composed of 17 members, four of whom draw a regular salary for work averaging 5.6 periods a week. The remaining 13 teach less than one period a week, when the average is taken, and they receive no salary compensation. The situation at the University of Cincinnati is even more striking. The instructing staff in the medical department is composed of 54 members. Of this number 19 are professors. But only three of the entire staff receive a regular salary, one of whom is a professor. These schools are located in cities where the temptation and opportunity for active practice are greater than in small towns. The medical department of the State University of Iowa, in a town of about 8000 inhabitants, presents a contrast. The faculty is composed of 15 members, all of whom receive a salary, and the average amount of instruction is 10.4 periods a week.

As the table on page 140 shows at a glance, there are usually a few men in each medical faculty who are primarily teachers. The others are practicing physicians who devote from one to three hours per week to teaching. There is no exact uniformity in regard to the chairs occupied by the professors who devote most of their time to teaching. But these chairs are closely restricted to therapeutics, materia medica, physiology, the practice of medicine, anatomy, and pathology.

The table includes data for 18 schools of medicine in which 281 professors are engaged. Of these professors 76 receive no salary and over 50 per cent teach three hours per week or less. These figures, being taken from representative medical schools, illustrate the general plan of the composition of medical schools. In the data the laboratory hours, when they are specifically stated, are counted at the rate of two to one lecture or recitation period.

The data for the law schools show the same general tendencies, though not to the same degree. Out of the 24 representative schools, in which there are 125 professors, only 7 professors teach without salary and only 24 per cent of the professors teach three periods per week or less. The table on page 141 gives the same details as were given for the medical schools.

In presenting these data I do not wish to imply that the practice of employing

professors who teach only part time is not a wise one. The data indicate the extent to which this practice is being carried, and they also suggest an extreme which professional schools may be wise to avoid.

AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION BY PROFESSORS IN MEDICAL SCHOOLS

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Under the scale below is given the number of professors in the medical departments of the institutions named with their respective periods of teaching per week.

INSTITUTION	Less than 8 hrs.																Average	Total No. Professors	No. Professors Receiving Salary						
	Less than 8 hrs.	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16	16-17				17-18	18-19	19-20	20-21	21-22	
BOWDOEN COLLEGE	1	3	1	2	2	2 ¹		2 ¹	1														4.6	14	14
DRAKE UNIVERSITY	12		1	1	1									1		1							8.1	17	4
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY ..	8 ²	4	5	1																			2	18	18
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY		1	3	3	2																		8.8	10 ³	10
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA				1	2		4		1	3			1			2					(80)	1	10.4	15 ³	15
STATE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA		1						1		1					2		1	1					12.2	7	7
TYLANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA ..		11	5	10	2	1	2	2		1													4	34 ⁷	34
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI											1												See Note 4	19	1
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO	6	6	1	2					1														2.3 ⁶	17	16
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS					1						1				1		1						12.2	4	4
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI			1	2	1	2	1				1												5.7	8	8
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA	7	6	4	3				1	1														2.8	22	18
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH	7	3	1	3	1						1	1						1					4.2	18	15
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE	1	2	5	3		1	2																3	14	14
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA			4	2		1		1	2														5.2	10	10
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY	8	11	2			1			1			4						2			1	(24)	5.3	30	5
WISCONSIN RESERVE UNIVERSITY		1		1	1	2					1												5.6 ³	18	6
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY											1		2			3							18.1	6	6
Total number professors	50	49	33	34	13	10	9	7	7	4	5	6	4	1	3	6	2	4					281		

¹ This gives only one week of work.
² This gives one period a week for 10 weeks, and one, one period a week for 14 weeks.
³ The figures for one professor are not given definitely; the average is made on the basis of the other 9.
⁴ Data for only the one salaried professor are given.
⁵ Average made out on basis of 6 professors; the periods for the other 12 are not given.
⁶ Made out on basis of 16 professors.
⁷ Includes undergraduate and graduate schools of medicine.
⁸ Includes College of Medicine and College of Homeopathic Medicine.

AMOUNT OF INSTRUCTION BY PROFESSORS IN LAW SCHOOLS

INSTITUTION	Under the scale below is given the number of professors in the law departments of the institutions named with their respective periods of teaching per week.															Total No. Professors	No. of Professors Receiving Salary	
	Less than 3 hrs.	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-8	8-9	9-10	10-11	11-12	12-13	13-14	14-15	15-16			Average
DICKINSON COLLEGE				1		1	1			1		1				7.8	5	5
DRAKE UNIVERSITY			1	1	1							2				7.2	5	5
GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY...	2	6	2	1		1				1		1				3.7	14	14
LELAND STANFORD JR. UNIVERSITY								2								8	2	2
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY				2			1			1	2	1	1	1		9.5	9	9
OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY		2	2	2	2		1		2							4.8	11	11
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA						1	2	1		1						7.6	5	5
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA		1				2										4.6	3	3
UNIVERSITY OF ALABAMA												2				12	2	2
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI		2				1	1		1							5.2	5	5
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO										1				2		13.3	5	3
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA												1		1		14.5	2	2
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS										3						10	3	3
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI						1				3						9.2	4	4
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA						2						1				8	3	3
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA		2	1	2		1	2		1							4.8	9	9
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH		3		2	2											3.4	7 ³	7
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH CAROLINA								2		1						8.6	3	3
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH DAKOTA									1			1		1		11.3	3	3
UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE				1						1						7.5	2	2
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA						3										7	3	3
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY								3								8 ¹	5	5
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY	3	4				2		1	1							3.6	11	6
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY										2			1		1	12	4	4
<i>Total number professors</i>	5	20	6	11	6	9	14	9	6	15	2	10	2	2	4	125

¹ Made out on basis of three paid professors. Number of periods not given for other two.

³ Paid wholly from students' fees.

NUMBER OF PERIODS OF INSTRUCTION GIVEN BY THREE GRADES OF INSTRUCTING STAFF

I IN ACCEPTED INSTRUCTIONS

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Under each head below is given the number of institutions which report the number of periods of instruction given per week by professors, assistant professors, and instructors in their respective departments as indicated by scale in first column.

Scale for Number Periods of Class-room Instruction	English			Mathematics			Latin			Greek			French			German			History			Philosophy				
	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors	Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors		
	Less than 5 hrs.	2		1			1	2			1			3		1	1		1		2		1			
5 to 6 hrs.			1							1			1					1	1	2						
6 " 7 "	2					2							2				1	1	2	2	2	1				
7 " 8 "	3	3	1					1	1			1			2		1	2	1		1	1	1			
8 " 9 "	4	1	5	2		1		2	2	1	2		2				3	2		3			1			
9 " 10 "	5	5	3	4		2		4	2		3	1	1	4		1	4		1	6	2	2	6	3		
10 " 11 "	6	2	2	5	5	2		6	3		6	3	1	1	3		4	1	2	7	3	1	3			
11 " 12 "	4	4		3	2			3	1	2	4		1	2		2	3		3	4		3	1			
12 " 13 "	9	2	4	5	5	4		6	3	2	5	3	2	7	1	3	4	3	4	5	4	3	4	2	2	
13 " 14 "	1	3	1	5	1	3		4	3	1	3			3	3	2	4	6	3	5	2	1				
14 " 15 "	3	2	2	5	2	3		2	3		3	2	3	5	2	3	6	2	2	1	1	2	2			
15 " 16 "	1		2	1	1	6		5	1	4	4		2	5	4	7	7	1	7	3		1	4			
16 " 17 "	4	1	1	5	1	1		2			5		1	5		4	4	1	5	3		1				
17 " 18 "				2	1			1		1			1	1			1		1	1						
18 " 19 "	2	1	2	4		3		1		1	2		1	3		1	3		1	2			3			
19 " 20 "				1	1	1				1																
20 " 21 "				3	1			1			1			2			2									
21 " 22 "					1			1					1			2										
22 " 23 "																										
23 " 24 "																										
24 " 25 "																										
25 " 26 "																										
Average number periods	11.1	10.9	10.9	13.1	13.8	13		12.6	11.2	12.3	12.5	10.1	12.8	13.3	12.8	12.8	13.5	12.7	13.1	11.2	10		9.7	11	9.3	9.7

NUMBER OF PERIODS OF INSTRUCTION GIVEN BY THREE GRADES OF INSTRUCTING STAFF

II. IN STATE INSTITUTIONS

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Scale for Number Periods of Class-room Instruction	Under each head below is given the number of institutions which report the number of periods of instruction given per week by professors, assistant professors, and instructors in their respective departments as indicated by scale in first column.																										
	English			Mathematics			Latin			Greek			French			German			History			Philosophy					
	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor	Professor	Assistant Professor	Instructor			
Less than 5 hrs.	1		2									1	1												1		
5 to 6 hrs.				1	1					1	1														1		
6 " 7 "						1	2		2																1		
7 " 8 "	1						1			1						1			1						1		
8 " 9 "	1	1		1						1															1		
9 " 10 "		1	1	1						1				1					1	2		1	3				
10 " 11 "	1	1	1	2			2		1	1	1		1					1			1	1	2	1			
11 " 12 "	5	1	2	1						1									2	2	2						
12 " 13 "	2	3	1	4	1		5	1		4	1		3	1	3	4	1		6	3		4	2				
13 " 14 "	2	1	4	1	1		2	2		2		1	1	2		1		2	1	1	2						
14 " 15 "	1	1	2	2	2	1	1			1	2		4			1	1	2	4	2		1					
15 " 16 "	5	1		3	1	3	2	1	2	2	1		4	3	2	6	3	4	2	1		2					
16 " 17 "	4	1	1		2	1		1		2			2		2	1		1	1								
17 " 18 "	1	2		3				1	1		1	1		1	1	1	1	2	3	1							
18 " 19 "		2	2		3	1	4	1		4	1		2			4			1	1							
19 " 20 "	1			3	3			1			1				1	1		1									
20 " 21 "	3	1	1	4	1	3	6	2		4	1		5		1	6	1	1	2	2		1					
21 " 22 "								1			1			1			1								1		
22 " 23 "																											
23 " 24 "						1	1																				
24 " 25 "					1	1										1			1								
25 " 26 "		1				1								1			1										
Average	13.6	14.5	12.5	14.7	16.2	17.2	14.7	16.7	11.1	14.2	15	11.3	15.3	14.8	15.4	16.5	15.5	15.7	13.2	14.2	10.1	11.8	11.3	5			

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THE SUPPORT OF HIGHER EDUCATION

ACCORDING to the common experience of civilized nations common school education is the duty of the state and should be supported by taxation. With respect to the support of higher education there is no such uniformity of practice. In nearly all states of the Union, however, higher education in some of its phases is also supported by taxation, and in the great majority of the states this support extends to all branches of the higher learning and to the professions. Both in the United States and in Canada this support comes from the state or province. In neither country does the federal government undertake to deal with education.

To this well-settled policy there have been noticeable exceptions in the United States in the appropriations of the proceeds of the sale of public lands to the support of agricultural and mechanical colleges. The administration of such funds, however, is turned over to the various states and the result is practically a gift to the state.

The precedent established by the Morrill Act is constantly invoked in the United States in the effort to obtain further aid from the federal government for local schools of various kinds. The most persistent effort in recent years has been that made in the interest of mining schools and agricultural high schools. If this is successful a similar effort will at once be begun for the establishment of commercial schools. A number of those interested in education in the south have advocated federal help in the establishment of county high schools. This whole effort is a part of the recent movement to turn to the federal government for aid in every possible cause. In my judgment such legislation is contrary to true public policy. There is no more reason why the United States should pay for a mining school in one state than for a commercial school in another. Once this door is open, paternalism of the most demoralizing kind is invited. The problem of education is one for the municipality, the county, and the state to solve. There is no more uncomfortable evidence of the demoralizing effect of government aid than the spectacle of a great and powerful commonwealth applying through its representatives for assistance from the United States government to found and maintain schools for which the state itself is abundantly able to provide. The way to better educational facilities in these states lies along the path already traveled, in the development of local schools, the maintenance of good standards, and, above all, in the development in each state of an enlightened public opinion. This process means the education of a whole state, a process which no free gift can help. There are to my thinking only two groups of our citizenship for whose education a state may with dignity and justice invoke the aid of the United States government—these are the Indians and the negroes. Both of these are in one sense wards of the nation. Neither came into his present position by his own volition. For that situation the country as a whole is responsible. The burden imposed by the ignorance of both of these groups is in a very real sense a na-

tional matter. Here, if anywhere, a state might be justified in asking the coöperation of the whole country in solving the problems of education.

With respect to higher education two radically different plans are in the process of development in the United States, one, that of the university or college supported by tuition and private endowment, the other, the university or college supported by taxation and governed therefore by the state whence its support is drawn. While these two systems of colleges and universities are growing contemporaneously, they are characteristic of different sections of the country. In New England there is but a single state university, while in the west, with few exceptions, the privately endowed institutions are overshadowed by the great state universities. It seems clear that a privately endowed university in a state where higher education is supported by taxation has a somewhat different function from that of a university where this is not the case. Such institutions as the University of Chicago, Leland Stanford Junior University, and Washington University, Saint Louis, standing in states where university education is practically free, have very different obligations to general education from Harvard or Columbia, which do their work in states where university education is not supported by taxation.

The colleges of the older states—New England, New York, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey—sought and obtained in their beginnings state aid. In the end, however, they abandoned the effort to obtain support from their respective states and decided to depend on tuition fees helped out by the support from private giving. This action was partly the result of denominational effort to control colleges, but the outcome was in the main due to distrust of state control and the political interference which was considered inseparable from it. In addition, the difficulty of securing adequate support from a state seemed at that time far greater than that of securing it from individuals.

The experience of the last two decades has greatly modified this view. It is true that the state universities were launched upon the uncertain sea of political management. But the very circumstances of their life made it necessary to educate the entire state as to the value of education itself and the obligation of a great commonwealth to support higher education generously. Slowly, but none the less surely, the stronger universities in the more progressive states have secured freedom from unwise political interference. The alumni of these institutions now form a most influential part of the citizenship of their states and help to create public opinion.

Furthermore, with the support of a fast developing public opinion, the governing boards of these institutions—chosen for long terms—have shown that it is possible to secure through ordinary political action competent boards for great institutions of learning. The late William F. Vilas, sometime United States Senator from Wisconsin and a member of President Cleveland's Cabinet, rendered for many years conspicuous service as a member of the board of regents of the University of Wisconsin and upon his death left to the university a bequest of a large sum of money, a gift

whose disposition gave evidence of his close and intimate knowledge of educational conditions and of the university's needs.

The most impressive feature, however, of the advance of the tax-supported institutions is the generous support accorded to them by their respective states. Several states now contribute annually a million dollars each to the support of their respective state universities, and in some states the bulk of this income comes in the form of a mill tax which is rendered without action of the legislature and which increases automatically with each revaluation of state property. A million dollars a year is, however, a very modest sum for a great and rich state like Wisconsin, or Illinois, or California to spend on its state university. These institutions may confidently expect incomes far larger than any privately endowed universities can hope to enjoy. It is clear that state support of education in a commonwealth educated to that ideal is the most generous and constant source from which such support can be drawn. The history of institutions like the University of Maine and the Pennsylvania State College shows how quickly the people of even the older states respond to the demands of their state college. It is not to be expected, or desired, that the well-endowed universities and colleges of the New England and of the Middle States will ever seek a closer relation with their state governments, though they are almost sure to cultivate a closer relation to the state system of education. It is not unlikely, however, that other and younger institutions may find in these older states both a wider opportunity and a surer ground of support in some relation to the state government.

There is one feature of state support of education which is worth noting. In the earlier days the state university president was expected to lobby for his annual appropriation. In the better institutions that day has gone by. The state university president goes before committees of the legislature with his budget. He appears there not as a beggar but as a state officer, exactly as the head of a government bureau goes before the committees of appropriations of Congress. He submits to whatever questioning on these estimates the committee desires to make, but having made his statement he will, if he be a wise man, throw the entire responsibility of making or refusing the appropriation asked for upon the legislature. His duty is done when his case is fairly and fully stated. On the whole, this position is a far more dignified one than that of the college president who undertakes to solicit money from individuals.

When one leaves out of consideration the group of well-endowed institutions on private foundation and the group of universities and colleges receiving a generous support from taxation — in all not more than one hundred and twenty-five institutions — it must be confessed that the remaining American colleges obtain a very precarious and uncertain support, pieced out by a system of unremitting appeals to individuals and the public.

Three causes have combined to make college begging in the United States assume a magnitude and an influence on the efficiency and morality of those connected

with education which is unknown elsewhere. These are, first, the multiplication of so-called colleges through denominational, local, or state rivalry; second, the increased cost of college work, due partly to modern laboratory methods and partly to the effort to teach all subjects; third, the example of a few liberal givers to education, whose wide generosity has helped to inspire the belief that any college can get support if it begs efficiently.

Few persons, even among the teachers or officers in the stronger and better supported institutions, appreciate what a factor the solicitation of money has become in the life of many colleges. In some of these the president's chief business is to beg, and he has little time left for any other. When he has secured the promise of fifty thousand dollars on condition that he raise three times as much elsewhere, all other considerations go by the board while this sum is being begged. Three years of such a life has thoroughly demoralized some good colleges. It is interesting to note that some of the denominational colleges in recognition of this tendency have appointed an official college solicitor, who is not the president, thereby giving the latter the opportunity to attend to his legitimate duties.

One very serious outcome of this situation is the tendency to secure a college president on the basis of his ability to get money rather than on the ground of his scholarly and moral fitness. A well-known giver to small colleges wrote to a newly chosen president: "Are you a good beggar? It takes a smart man to get money." The tendency of this whole system is to bring in smart men who can get money rather than scholars and leaders.

The support of many colleges is seriously impaired by the discriminations made in favor of particular classes of students. Most denominational colleges, for example, remit tuition to students who announce their intention to prepare for the ministry and to the children of ministers. Any college president who has had to do with the distribution of trust funds to students realizes how quickly such discriminations affect the point of view of the student body. It is difficult to favor certain classes of students by financial assistance without doing more harm than good, and if there is one man more than another who needs to stand on his own feet it is he who aspires to be a religious leader.

Over and above all this, in a number of colleges in the south and west particularly, college rivalry has led not only to a most undignified solicitation of students, but to a shading of tuition fees to the loss of the college income. A sharp parent, by pitting one college against another, can often secure a large reduction in tuition, if not its entire remission for the first year. The whole process is demoralizing, and there is nothing in American college life comparable with it except that form of college "graft" under which successful athletes are steered into college and university athletic teams.

The financial side of the administration of colleges has perhaps been one of its weakest parts. One reason for this has been the lack of care in the selection of gov-

erning bodies. A large proportion of those who sit on boards of trustees in colleges have no conception of college work, and have shown little readiness or ability in the handling of even its financial responsibilities. In many cases the boards are large and unwieldy, made up of men who have little knowledge of the college and who are wholly unprepared to assume any active part in the financial administration. The so-called "practical business man," when elected to such membership, has rarely taken it seriously and has still more rarely justified the wisdom of his choice. The Foundation expects to publish a bulletin in the course of the coming year describing the form of organization and government of all colleges in the United States and Canada, in the hope that an exhibit of present conditions may lead to a more careful consideration of the organization and personnel of the governing boards. One of the serious difficulties of most colleges is to find in their communities men who are capable of assuming the duties of trustees and who are willing to give the time and effort which ought to go to the performance of such duties. The practice of appointing on such boards prominent men who have neither the experience nor the time to attend to the duties of a trustee is one that ought to disappear. Dummy trustees in a college board are as much out of place as in the board of directors of a life assurance company, and their presence is likely to bring similar results.

That the claims of deserving colleges should be set before the public is evident. That it is a duty of public-spirited men of means to give to such colleges is equally clear. How to seek such aid effectively with dignity and modesty, or how to give it with wisdom, is not so easy a matter. The ordinary intelligent man of wealth has no means of judging between the genuine college, which has a real work to do and which ought to be helped, and the imitation college. As a rule, the man of large means who gives money to a college does so on the solicitation of some friend of the college and on the general assumption that all institutions calling themselves colleges deserve help. The notion that every enterprise which calls itself educational ought to receive the money it asks is quite as far from sound policy as the assumption that every individual who applies for money is entitled to aid. An institution calling itself a college may be a true centre of education, or it may be drawing to its halls students who are receiving stones instead of the bread they would have received, had they gone elsewhere. In the long run, the raising of standards and the gradual education of public opinion will make a discrimination between the college which is needed and the one which is not. Such an educated public opinion will rate the honest and efficient academy above the insincere and superficial college.

Meantime, it is clear that the trustees of every true college should see to it that the college for which they are responsible enters upon a rational and just financial policy, the beginning of which is common business honesty, the sort of honesty which exacts a fair price for its service, furnishes the service it undertakes to provide, and pays its obligations promptly and fully. Such a college will not have one standard of admission in its catalogue and another in its practice, it will not print a tuition

rate and shade it to meet competition, it will not engage its professors at one salary and at the end of the year pay a lower one, it will not advertise high-sounding courses of study to attract students and place the conduct of such courses in the hands of inexperienced boys. Many a college which could pay fair salaries to its teachers and offer a fruitful curriculum to its students is reduced to constant begging by the effort to cover the whole field of human knowledge. Their courses of study remind one forcibly of the bills of fare at the ambitious hotels in small towns where one finds a long and complicated printed menu, but seeks in vain for a simple and wholesome meal. Poor financial management, the unfitness and lack of devotion of trustees, and the habit of dependence on continuous begging are all intimately connected with low college standards and superficiality and inefficiency in education. The student body which lives in an atmosphere of continual begging is unfortunate.

THE ORGANIZATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

ALL associations of men which seek to deal with social, intellectual, and spiritual forces live and move and have their being between the tendency to over-organization on the one hand and the lack of effective organization on the other. It is clear that organization must play in such associations a somewhat different rôle from that which it fills in certain other agencies, such as those of business, for example. As we study the history of churches and of parties, we are often impressed with the fact that the period of their greatest efficiency as moral and social agencies came in the days before organization had run away with the living causes which gave them birth. Schools, colleges, and universities, like churches and parties, are simply human organizations seeking to deal with spiritual and intellectual forces. They—no less than religious and political organizations—stand in danger of the narrowness and rigidity which come from formal administration. Human nature is quite the same whether one considers priests, politicians, or pedagogues. In each species of institution organization tends to run away with the deeper underlying purpose which gave it birth. Devotion to church is confused with religion, devotion to party with statesmanship, devotion to educational routine takes the place of true teaching.

Nevertheless, in great continuing movements, such as the education of a people, organization is indispensable. In no other way can continuity and efficiency be had. Not only is this true, but organization which is wise, which respects fundamental tendencies and forces, which separates incongruous phases of activity, may not only add to the efficiency of a national educational effort, but may offer a larger measure of freedom than can be hoped for in chaotic and unrelated efforts to accomplish the same ends. Isolation and lack of coöperation are no less deadening than unthinking obedience to established routine. The practical problem in a civilized nation is to establish such an educational organization as will secure relation between the differ-

ent kinds of schools, while at the same time preserving a fair degree of freedom of action and of development.

This conception of an educational system has come as the result of many centuries of evolution. In the older European countries schools of one kind and another began, developed, and were gradually related the one to the other in a common educational system. In the most advanced European states, as, for example, those of the German Empire, the national system of education aims to deal with the individual citizen from the time of his first entrance into a school up to the completion of his vocational or professional training. While these schools have relation to each other, the accepted system of education recognizes certain clear divisions corresponding to distinctive periods in the life of the child or of the youth. The schools which are intended to correspond to these periods articulate, they do not overlap. The system of education consists, therefore, of a continuous series of schools from the lowest to the highest, and a school of given name does practically the same work in all parts of the kingdom.

In the United States we are younger. The pioneer stage of national development is so near to us in time that many of its habits still rule in social and political matters. This is particularly true in education. We can scarcely claim as yet to have a system, at least in higher education; or, if there is the beginning of a system, the discords in it are more striking than the agreements.

To illustrate: the college is our oldest school of higher learning. In the United States to-day there are nearly one thousand institutions which call themselves colleges. The work offered by these institutions varies from that of a true college, articulating with the standard high school and offering four years of fruitful study, to institutions so low in grade that their courses of study do not equal those of a good high school.

This confusion is the result of a number of causes among which, especially significant, are the newness of our educational development, the lack of any intelligent supervision of higher education, and the tendency of colleges in the past to remain isolated schools unrelated to the general system of education. The first of these is a perfectly natural phase of our extraordinary national and industrial growth. Our institutions of learning have grown up under the most diverse conditions. The astonishing thing is that they have grown in such numbers. The essential point to recognize to-day is that the pioneer days are over, and that the problem before us now is not the building of more colleges, but the strengthening of those which exist and the bringing of some measure of educational unity into our whole system of education.

The absence in nearly all states of the Union of any form of supervision over higher education is a singular feature of our educational history. The University of the State of New York (which is a board, not a teaching institution) represents almost the only effective agency in any state in the Union which has the power to supervise or even to criticize institutions devoted to higher education and to professional training. In the state of New York the term *college* has a definite meaning, and an

institution, whether for academic or professional training, must, before it can confer degrees, comply with certain standards and must have certain facilities for education. In most states of the Union, at least until very recently, any body of men who chose to do so for any purpose whatever could incorporate under the general laws and organize what they called a college, a medical school, or a law school, to be conducted according to their own standards or ambitions and without any relation to the general system of education. Under these conditions, denominational, professional, local, and personal rivalries have led to the establishment of more so-called colleges and professional schools than the country can possibly support. These may legally confer all the degrees of higher learning which the strongest and most scrupulous college can offer—a right they are not slow to make use of. The District of Columbia has been prolific in paper colleges which scatter degrees far and wide, the distribution beginning usually with the members of their own faculties. Among the colleges chartered by the state of Maryland in about 1900 is the "Medico-Chirurgical and Theological College of Christ's Institution." The charter gave the school the right to grant all kinds of degrees, and it is needless to say that the organizers a few weeks later were able to attach to their names many academic titles. The fifth annual catalogue contained the following on its first page: "Fifth Annual Announcement and Catalogue, edited by the Rev. Dr. P. Thomas Stanford, A.M., M.D., D.D., LL.D., Ph.D., Vice-President."

The absence of any rational supervision or even of any provision for fair criticism or review of our higher institutions of learning is in part due to the attitude of the colleges themselves. In the past even the older and stronger colleges have been disposed to resent any official inquiry into their organization or into their methods of conduct. College professors have been not a little inclined to look down on those who supervised state schools. Such positions have been considered inferior in importance to that of a college president or professor. This is partly due to the political prestige (using that term in a large sense) which the college president enjoys in the support of a large constituency. The superintendent of education has at his back no great body of alumni and students. He is not in the public eye in the same way as the college president. Nevertheless these places are of the highest educational value and they should be made worthy of the best men. What college president has done for education in America what Horace Mann did for it? Furthermore, the good college has everything to gain by a scrutiny of higher education if carried out by able men under a system free of political interference. The time has come when in all states those who stand for sincerity in education should demand the passage of laws safeguarding the degree-giving power and providing an agency for the expert oversight of higher education as well as of elementary and secondary education. Universities and colleges are to all intents educational trusts. They have the same advantages to gain from fair and wise oversight on the part of the state as other trusts have to gain from such oversight.

Underlying all other causes which tend to confusion in higher education is the fundamental one that American colleges have been in the past conducted as separate units, not as factors in a general educational system. Devotion to education has meant generally devotion to the fortunes of a single institution. There has been little effort to coördinate colleges with other institutions of higher learning or with the general system of education. To the want of a general educational consciousness more than to any other cause is due the confusion which to-day reigns amongst our higher institutions of learning.

It seems clear that the work of the next two decades in American education is to be a work of educational reorganization, and this reorganization must include elementary and secondary education as well as higher education, for the problem of national education is really one problem, not a series of isolated and unrelated problems. To-day our schools, from the elementary school to the university, are inefficient, superficial, lacking expert supervision. They are disjointed members of what ought to be a consistent system. The work of reorganization is so enormous that one is almost at a loss to answer the practical question: Where should such organization begin? The answer to this question must come in the end from the intelligent leadership of teachers themselves, and from the coöperation of teachers in all parts of our system of national education. I venture to point out certain considerations which seem to me to be essential as forming the groundwork from which improvement and progress must proceed.

It is, I believe, admitted by those who are most familiar with the conditions of schools throughout the United States that the weakness and inefficiency of the elementary and secondary schools, arising in the first place from lack of clear conceptions of what these schools should actually seek to do, are apparent, first, in the effort to teach too many things and, second, in the lack of competent teachers. In other words, the elementary and secondary schools, like the institutions of higher learning, have attempted too many subjects to the neglect of the fundamental intellectual training common to all education. The remedy is to be found in clearer definitions of purpose, variation of school types, and more simple and thorough curricula. We cannot teach all subjects in one school, but we can provide a wide variety of schools, each of which may do its own work thoroughly.

It is clear that the lack of efficient teaching is one of the most expensive national weaknesses, and that the inefficiency of our school system is in great measure due to this lack of efficient teaching. For example, mathematics is a subject which has been a standard study in our schools from the beginning. Students who pass through our high schools and enter college spend in the nine years corresponding to the period covered by the German *gymnasium*, seventy-five per cent more of the time of instruction on mathematics and yet receive a training vastly inferior to that of the *gymnasium*.

Progress has been made in the last two years toward equipping a larger number of

competent teachers. The growth of teachers' colleges in connection with the universities is a most notable gain. Before the matter can be rightly solved, public opinion must be educated to appreciate the dignity and importance of the teacher's work and the absolute necessity for such strengthening of the security and recompense of the teacher as will attract to that calling able men and women in larger numbers.

It is clear also that the elementary and secondary system of education must in its reorganization meet the present-day demand for industrial training. Our public school system did not undertake originally vocational training. In the modern industrial state that training is a part of public education, and one very serious problem to be met in the reorganization of education is the provision for vocational schools and their relation to the elementary school system.

It is not possible at this day to outline a complete system of such schools. Clearly the vocational school will vary with the locality and will minister to local conditions. The experience of other nations would, however, seem to indicate that elementary schools will continue to be devoted to the general education of children up to the age of fourteen years, but that its last two years will see the introduction of certain industrial exercises and studies. The vocational schools, resting on the elementary schools, are likely to be two-year, and in some cases three-year, high schools. The high school, devoted to general training, is under such conditions likely also to tend toward a similar length of curriculum. In a word, the curriculum and the length of time spent in the high school would be materially modified by an increased efficiency in the lower schools and by the effort to meet the demands of vocational training.

These transformations in the lower schools, which time is sure to bring, demand the earnest attention of those engaged in higher education.

The method of transfer from the secondary school to the college is one of primary importance. It is generally admitted that at present neither admission by certificate nor by examination is serving education or the interests of students effectively.

Admission by certificate is necessarily a very indefinite thing in the absence of a rigid and impartial supervision of secondary schools. One great source of weakness in American schools would be removed by the adoption of the plan generally in use in foreign schools and in Canada, under which the examinations for promotion from one grade to the next are conducted by the supervisor of education, not by the teacher. The pressure brought upon teachers to promote ill-prepared pupils is thereby eliminated, and this pressure is a fruitful source of demoralization in American public schools.

Admission to college by examination has unquestionably served a useful purpose in American education, but it has also tended to make admission to college assume the form of doing certain "stunts" rather than the attainment of a certain grade of intellectual culture. Its effect upon the secondary schools has been most disastrous from the standpoint of true education.

This result has no doubt been partly due to the attempt to recognize a large va-

riety of subjects as college entrance requirements. Under such a régime a boy is naturally inclined to glean a point for admission wherever it can most easily be picked up. This tendency, coupled with the low passing mark accepted for admission, has worked for increased superficiality in the preparation of boys entering college. As a result in the colleges admitting by examination only, a majority of the students enter with conditions.

The question of the right coördination of the college with the secondary school is one which should have at this time the most earnest consideration on the part of teachers both in the college and in the secondary school. The first practical step would seem to be to secure uniformity in this matter throughout the country. For this reason the Carnegie Foundation has adopted a definition of the college which involves the placing of the college upon the standard four-year high school. Great progress is being made throughout the whole country toward uniformity in this matter. Once this is attained the question whether the dividing point between college and high school should be changed can be effectively taken up, and this question is one which is immediately involved in the consideration of any plan of national education.

Within the last three decades the field of the high school has been so enlarged that its final two years cover to-day the studies formerly given in the first two years of college. This has not been accomplished by an increase of efficiency in the lower grades. The boy who formerly entered college at sixteen now enters at eighteen.

The whole subject of administration of higher education, no less than the determination of the functions of the college itself and its future, are contained in the inquiry whether the boy shall enter college at sixteen or at eighteen.

Is our system of higher education to consist of a secondary school surmounted by the college, and this in turn surmounted by the university with its graduate and professional schools? Then assuredly the college must deliver students to the university at an earlier age than twenty-two and a half years, which is the present practice. The German boy enters the university to-day from the *gymnasium* fully two years younger than the American boy enters the American university from the college. No nation will endure so serious a handicap as this organization of education would involve.

Just what function does the college, which is our most distinctive institution, fill? Is it a school for youths where both discipline and freedom are to play a part, a school in which the youth is brought out of the tutelage of the boy into the freedom of the man; or is it a school for men in which they choose as they will the studies and the pleasures of college life? If the first ideal is that which is to form the college, then the college years may well be those between sixteen and twenty; if the latter, eighteen is full young for such unrestricted freedom.

It seems clear that those who deal with American education must choose between these two distinctive conceptions of what the college is to be. If the first conception is to become general, then we may justly impose the university on the college, form-

ing a consistent system of higher education and ensuring the permanent preservation of the American college. If the latter conception of the college is to prevail, either two years must be gained in preparatory education or else the college must become as it is now tending to become, a sort of parallel to the university, a school for the few and not for the many.

I venture to add that the needs of elementary education, the demands for industrial training, the claims of the professional schools, and the economic necessities of the situation all seem to point to a solution of an educational organization in which the college would deliver its students to the university or to business life at twenty rather than at twenty-two.

Finally, those who have to deal with education and with its organization must make clear the distinction between college and university. Economic considerations no less than educational efficiency demand that the present confusion should be cleared.

I question whether we have yet realized the effect of this confusion upon the American college in the transformation of teaching and of teachers. The old-time college teacher was a man who had above all else intellectual enthusiasm and intellectual sympathy; his learning touched many fields and all with a sympathetic and friendly spirit, and his work consisted largely of bringing into the lives and into the intellectual appreciation of his students his own sense of learning and of civilization and of social relations. For this work there was needed not primarily a man of research, but a man of large comprehension, of wide interests, of keen sympathies, and of discriminating touch. We seldom choose teachers to-day on such grounds. The primary requisite is that the teacher shall be a man of research, that he shall have indicated in some special direction his ability to advance human knowledge, or at least his readiness to make that attempt. When we choose a teacher on this basis alone, we surrender the essential reason for which the college exists, for if the college is to serve as a place for the development of character, for the blossoming of the human spirit and of the human intellect, it will become this only under the leadership of men who have in their own lives shown the fruitage of such development, who have themselves broad sympathies and quick appreciations.

I am the last man to wish the spirit of research dulled. We need in our universities above all else the nurture of this spirit. What I wish to emphasize is this: the college and the university stand for essentially different purposes. These distinctions are almost lost sight of in the confusion of our educational organization. Research is a word to conjure with, but in the last two decades more sins have been committed in its name against good teaching than we are likely to atone for in the next generation. We must, if we are to retain the college as a place for general culture and the university as a place for the promotion of scholarly research and for professional training, honor the college teacher for his own work's sake, and honor no less the investigator in his own field. These two fields overlap; but in the college the primary function is one thing, in the institution for research another.

Let me add one other word in this connection. If we will seriously undertake to discriminate between good teaching and poor teaching, we shall get far on the way to distinguish between true scientific research and its imitation, an inquiry which will be as greatly to the advantage of our graduate schools and universities as the first can be to our colleges. In both college and university we need to turn our faces resolutely toward simplicity, sincerity, thoroughness; to get a clear conception of what we are undertaking and to call institutions of learning by their true names.

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**STANDARDS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION
IN THE UNITED STATES**

Like other branches of education, the training of men for the learned professions has not yet outgrown the pioneer stage. The absence of any great city of overshadowing influence has prevented the formation of a school for lawyers such as the Inns of Court. The law schools began in groups of students gathering about a particular lawyer or group of lawyers. These ventures have generally been of local influence. The most famous was the school founded by Tapping Reeve at Litchfield, Connecticut, shortly after the revolution, which had an existence of more than a half century.

In a similar way schools of medicine have been formed by groups of physicians in different cities.

These schools of law and of medicine had, up to recent years, no common standards and no relation to the general system of education. The quality of the instruction varied in all possible ways. The length of time required for graduation ran from two short terms to three or four years.

The last twenty years have seen a great improvement in these conditions, notwithstanding the fact that much remains to be done. The tendency has been to make the school of law and of medicine a department of a university, subject to the government of the same authorities as supervise other branches of learning. The effect of this change is to remove commercialism, to raise standards, and to give unity to the cause of professional training. The advance is due in large measure to the associations of lawyers and of physicians, who have not been slow to realize that ultimately right standards of professional training and continuity of administration, together with security of support, could be attained only by grounding the training in these professions upon the general system of education and by removing from the schools of law and of medicine the suggestion of personal gain or control. It is clear that for the future the school of law or of medicine which is to endure must be part of a university, and this notwithstanding the fact that certain colleges and universities have used their degree-conferring powers to shelter superfluous and low-grade medical schools.

The examinations for license to practice in both of these professions are still quite low in standard in many states. Legislation in this respect in the state of New York is far in advance of that in most of the states of the Union. This is due to the fact that all education in New York is under the supervision of a competent department of education, which has one examination for all candidates for the practice of medicine, regardless of the school or sect to which they belong.

The action of the more progressive members of these two professions, as expressed in their associations, is in the direction of better standards and more efficient laws. The practice of medicine offers peculiar opportunities to the unscrupulous. The ab-

sence of any competent expert supervision in most states has made it possible for incompetent physicians to prey upon the public. This has been rendered all the more easy by the warring medical sects. The harm of sectarian medicine is not so much in its sectarianism as in its effort to secure special standards, which are invariably below those of a properly qualified physician. Given a well-educated man, thoroughly grounded in the fundamental sciences of physiology, anatomy, biology, chemistry, and the like, he will be a competent practitioner of medicine, whether graduated from one school or another. But the universal cover under which incompetence and fraud hide is low standards. If a medical school will maintain sound standards, both of entrance and of instruction, there can be no objection to admitting its graduates to practice, whether the school call itself allopathic, homeopathic, eclectic, osteopathic, or after some other medical sect. The public interest is effectively safeguarded only by the enforcement of high standards of medical education.

The school of theology has had in this country a somewhat different history from that of either the law school or the medical school. Like medicine, theology is primarily a science,—the science of religion. The schools of theology would therefore be fundamentally intended both for the training of a body of practitioners and for a much smaller body of investigators, just as the schools of medicine prepare a large number of practitioners, and a much smaller body of medical men of research. Schools of theology in America have been at a disadvantage as compared with schools of medicine from at least three causes: first, the greater multiplicity of sects; second, the absence of any scrutiny from an outside agency; and finally, and perhaps most important of all, the low standards of admission to the ministry.

As a result of these influences theological schools are in many cases simply denominational fitting schools with a limited efficiency as training places for religious practitioners or for theological investigators. Under this arrangement, theology, which has most need of association with other sciences, has been shyest of any intimacy with them.

Evidences are not wanting that those at the head of the stronger theological schools are seeking to meet this deficiency, and to develop institutions which shall hold up high standards of reverence, of religious efficiency, and of scholarship. For the great body of those who undertake the ministry the standards are, however, certainly as low as are those of medicine, and are as greatly in need of reform.

Beside the three old and established professions of the lawyer, the physician, and the preacher, a group of new technical professions has in recent years been added to the learned professions. The status of these technical callings is as yet not so well settled as are those of the three older professions. For the present, therefore, I have endeavored to make such examination as is possible concerning the status of education of candidates desiring to enter the practice of the law, of medicine, and of the ministry.

The preliminary step to any conclusions respecting education in these professions

is the knowledge of the present status of education in these professions. This task alone is no small one. It cannot be fully carried out without expert aid, and no far-reaching conclusions as to the needs of professional education can be reached without the consideration of those who are best qualified to judge. It is my hope to present ultimately a complete report with regard to educational organization as it is related to professional education.

THE INTEREST OF THE PUBLIC IN HIGH STANDARDS OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

A NOTABLE characteristic of human nature, whether among educated or uneducated men, is the universal reaching out after a specific. In theology, in medicine, in education, we are constantly seeking for specific creeds, specific cures, specific means of education, and intellectual cleverness is no protection against the vagaries of human nature. Growing out of our universal craving for a specific is the almost equally widespread tendency to accept the man or the association of men who undertake to furnish specifics, whether these be of faith or of practice.

Now the facts of our universal human experience go to show that there are few specifics in the settlement of questions which involve moral, intellectual, and physical forces. Even in the diagnosis of the simpler forms of human illness many factors enter. There are few diseases which are unmistakable, and for only a few of these have we specific remedies, and the efficacy of these is a function of the time and the manner of application. For intelligent treatment of the great number of such diseases we must depend on the honesty, the intelligence, and especially on the training and experience of the medical practitioners whom we consult. For this training all practitioners, whether of one school or another, are dependent on their knowledge of certain fundamental sciences,—physiology, anatomy, pathology, and the like. In fact, the practice of medicine is nothing else than the application of these fundamental sciences, just as the practice of electrical engineering is simply applied physics, mathematics, and mechanics. The general public cannot possibly differentiate between the various medical sects. The ordinary, busy, intelligent man has no opinion which is of any value as between allopaths, homeopaths, or eclectics, for example. The only possible protection he can secure is to insist that the man licensed to practice shall be first of all a well-educated man, and secondly, that he shall have been thoroughly grounded in the fundamental sciences upon which all medical practice depends. The only defense which he can hope to secure against the incompetent or fraudulent practitioner of medicine is to obtain such legal regulation of medical licensing and such expert scrutiny of medical education and the admission to practice as will guarantee the thorough preparation of authorized practitioners in the science of the day. The quack would gladly practice in accordance with the latest

discoveries of science if he only knew them. The rights and the interests of the public can be conserved only by requiring all candidates for practice — whether they be allopaths, homeopaths, eclectics, osteopaths, Christian Scientists, or faith healers — to show evidence of a thorough grounding in these fundamental sciences before being permitted to practice.

Not only has the public been slow to appreciate the fact that its interests and its safety depend on high standards of medical education, but it has generally been hostile to the reforms which the representatives of the leading medical societies have endeavored to bring about. The sympathy of the public has gone usually to the men who desire to practice medicine by the light of nature or, at best, with a most superficial preparation in the fundamental sciences which underlie medical practice. It is this attitude of the public which makes the practice of medicine the easiest field for the charlatan and the quack to enter.

An interesting feature of the legislation in this matter is the light thrown upon the commercial value in the United States of the professional title doctor in the practice of medicine. Experience shows that the public will accept the most incompetent practitioner who can legally affix the title of doctor to his name, whether it be gained in one medical sect or another, while it will not accept practice from an individual not equipped with that title. For example, the osteopaths have not been able to secure practice in those states where they are unable to use a medical degree. Now the man who undertakes to practice medicine under the name of osteopathy has exactly the same diseases to diagnose and to treat as other physicians have. He has exactly the same need for a training in the fundamental medical sciences. If, after he has taken such a training, he desires to call himself a doctor of osteopathy he has every right to use that title, and the public can have no more objection to it than it can to the fact that one trained theologian chooses to call himself a Methodist and another a Unitarian, while both undertake to teach and to practice the same religion.

The only possible protection and assurance which the public can have is to insist upon this fundamental training as a preliminary to any practice, and it may rightly suspect the motives of any set of would-be practitioners who undertake to evade these reasonable requirements — necessary alike in the interests of the public and of the profession of medicine. With respect to the practice of law, the public interest is dependent likewise on the enforcement of high professional standards. The practitioner of law does not deal so directly with the personal well-being of every citizen as does the physician, but no other profession is so closely related to the development of justice and to the progress of sound public policy. There is no way by which the public can tell whether the practitioner of law will develop into a wise advocate or into a sharp attorney. The only criterion it can impose for its own protection is to require such training for entrance to the profession as will fit the ordinary man for good work in it and will at the same time serve as a means to exclude the unfit.

Not only does the public find its sole protection in uniform requirements of high

standards for entrance into these professions, but the tolerance by the public of low standards means the maintenance of an open door for the benefit not of the deserving, but of the unfit. The practice of medicine and of the law is overrun to-day by a horde of those seeking to earn in these callings a means of living, who under a more just system of educational standards would be rendering to their communities a real service in some productive calling. It should be borne in mind that neither of these professions contributes to the productive wealth of society, and a man is of value to the world in them only when his ability is such that he contributes something over and above the amount represented by his fees. There are to-day more men in both of these professions than the country needs, and yet there are certainly, in the judgment of competent medical authorities, not enough competent medical practitioners to do the work of the country. Omitting for the time the dishonest quack in medicine and the unscrupulous attorney, it is still true that a large proportion of those in these professions ought to be earning a living in other callings where they would render a return to society by contributing to the productive energy of the world. The evils of the present over-production of ill-trained physicians and lawyers is perhaps more strikingly manifest in the small towns than elsewhere. In almost any town of five hundred families one can find a half dozen physicians and as many lawyers struggling for a living, when at the most two competent men in each profession could do the work of the community. Lawyers under such conditions spend their time in the exploitation of petty causes or in efforts to secure office. Physicians in such circumstances minister in large measure to chronic invalids, while the great cause of right sanitation and public health of the community is left absolutely untouched. Low educational standards are not only an injustice to the public on its own account, they are absolutely demoralizing to the profession. They serve to lay in the path of ill-trained and weak men temptations for which they are wholly unprepared, and the fruits of this mistake the public reaps.

The public is not less interested in right educational standards for the other great historic profession,—the ministry. Low standards of admission have worked in this great calling exactly the same consequences as one finds in the practice of law and of medicine. The demoralization due to low educational standards is in truth even more evident here than in the other two great professions generally associated with that of the ministry. This last is due to several causes. The most evident is the fact that the profession of the preacher has not kept pace with the enormous advance in popular education. A hundred years ago ministers were the educated men of their communities and their power was in proportion. In the interval the congregations have risen enormously in the scale of general education. With this rise the law and medicine have to a considerable extent kept pace. The ministry has relatively retrograded. The standards of admission to it have not kept pace with the general progress.

Another disadvantage under which the ministry has labored is the burden of sectarianism, the most common form of devotion to specifics which the world has known.

In this respect the profession of the preacher resembles somewhat that of the medical practitioner, with the difference that the medical sects are fewer in number. Essentially, however, sectarianism in theology and sectarianism in medicine rest on an analogous basis. In medicine the practitioner depends on the same fundamental sciences, and the same body of medical knowledge is open to him whether he calls himself a homeopath or an eclectic. In a similar way one minister may be called a Baptist and another a Roman Catholic. Yet each undertakes to teach the same religion out of the same Bible. The medical sects have made one enormous advance over religious sects. The better representatives of all medical sects have gathered themselves into one society for the betterment of their common standards,—a thing which is scarcely to be hoped for in the near future among religious sects.

Much has been said in recent years of the decay of churches, and the weakening of church ties particularly amongst Protestants. Many explanations have been given of this tendency. No doubt many factors have a share in the result which we see. Amongst these one of the most evident is the inefficiency of the ministry, due in the main to low standards of admission. In the Protestant churches, where the power of authority has largely passed by, the work of the church depends on the quality of the religious leadership of its preachers. The efficiency of this leadership is low. In the small towns one finds the same conditions as exist among lawyers and physicians. Four or five ministers eke out a living where one or two at most could do the work efficiently. Like the doctors of their villages, these men concern themselves with chronic cases and specific remedies, while the great problems of the moral health of their communities go untouched.

The old mother church has pursued a more far-sighted policy in this matter than the majority of her daughters. She requires of all her priests a long and severe training. However one may criticize the kind of education which they receive, or the large factor of loyalty to the ecclesiastical organization which forms part of it, the wisdom of the requirement is unquestionable. To it is due in very large measure the enormous moral power of the Roman Catholic Church throughout the world, particularly among the great masses of working people in the cities, where Protestantism has been so markedly ineffective, partly, at least, because of defects that an adequate modern education would go far toward remedying.

The Protestant ministry faces to-day a most serious economic difficulty. The low standards of admission coupled with the multiplication of sects and church buildings have brought into the profession of the minister a large number of ill-trained men, and have at the same time brought down the financial recompense of the minister to a very low basis,—the basis, indeed, of the inefficient man. However indispensable is the altruistic motive in the life of the preacher or of the teacher, neither preaching nor teaching can be considered independent of their economic relations in the social order unless the solution of the Roman Catholic Church is accepted, under which preachers are celibate priests and draw their support from the church. So long as

preachers are to marry and bring up families and assume a place in the social life of their communities, so long will the efficiency of the preacher have a direct relation to the quality of his financial support. The poverty of this support at this time, its uncertainty, the uncomfortable attitude of begging for oneself which many preachers have to assume, particularly in small communities, all operate powerfully to turn away able and serious men from this profession. A community which would support in comfort and dignity two able religious leaders will pay a bare living to five denominational preachers. And it is quite as true in the ministry as in any other profession that, taken by and large, one decently paid man is worth many ill-paid and inefficient men. It is impossible to estimate how much the cause of religious progress is delayed by the fact that a great proportion of the men who assume, as representatives of the Christian denominations, to take the place of religious leaders are unprepared for such leadership, are untrained in the fundamentals of theology, in the elements of learning, in knowledge of mankind, in the interpretation of life from the religious rather than from the denominational standpoint. Meagre as are the salaries paid, they are in many cases equal to the service rendered. In this situation the public is profoundly interested.

The public can form no sound conclusion whether a Methodist or a Baptist is likely to be the more efficient religious leader, any more than it can determine whether a homeopath or an allopath is the more likely to be an efficient practitioner of medicine. Of one thing only it can be sure, and that is that whether a man undertake to lead in one religious organization or another, he ought to have grounded himself in the fundamental studies which lie at the basis of all religious teaching, of all intellectual and spiritual leadership. Training counts for as much here as in any other human relation.

The raising of the efficiency of the profession of the ministry rests largely in the hands of preachers themselves, just as the raising of the profession of the law rests with lawyers, and the raising of the profession of medicine rests with physicians. That the effort presents for any particular Christian organization serious social, administrative, and economic difficulties cannot be denied. That the advancement of religious influence in the lives of men rests in large measure on this effort seems equally clear.

THE BUSINESS OF LAW AND OF MEDICINE

VERSUS

THE PROFESSION OF LAW AND OF MEDICINE

THE sympathy of the great mass of men is fairly sure to go out almost spontaneously to the individuals in whose path artificial restrictions are set up. It has been the boast of our democracy that America was the land of equal opportunity to all, and the sentiment finds response in the breast of every right-thinking man.

It is doubtless out of this feeling that the opposition to the erection of reasonable standards of entrance to the learned professions has arisen. Like many popular sentiments which are fundamentally right, the transformation of the sentiment into practice has been made in a short-sighted way. It has operated to give the ill-prepared and unfit member of society an advantage at the expense of the community. No man is born with the right to enter one of these professions any more than he is born with the right of suffrage. Both rights are conferred by the sovereign people upon prescribed conditions. The difficulty is that it is always more easy to excite popular sympathy for the individual complainant, however unworthy, than for the sovereign people, which seldom complains, no matter how far its interests are invaded. The notion that any man who wants to practice medicine ought to be allowed to try, and that any preacher who thinks he has a call ought to preach regardless of training, belongs to the pioneer stage of civilization.

By long usage of civilized nations the professions of the law and of medicine have received certain recognized standing. The practice of these professions carries with it certain privileges and advantages and should carry certain responsibilities. To require that those who are authorized to practice these professions should comply with reasonable conditions of preparation is not only a duty to the state, but is absolutely just to the individual. The difficulty has come in determining what are reasonable requirements for preparation in the practice of the law and of medicine, requirements that shall protect the interests of the public and still not inflict undue hardships upon the individual. It is in the settlement of this question that the practical difficulties arise. Great pressure is brought by those who desire to enter these professions to make the standards of admission as low as possible, and wherever the effort is made to constitute such standards as will safeguard the public and preserve the character of the profession, the cry is set up that the poor and struggling candidate for a profession is discriminated against. This argument is always illustrated by the example of a few great men who have achieved success in one or the other of these professions without the advantage of formal education. The argument is fallacious and is generally dishonestly made.

What are reasonable conditions to require of candidates for these professions? Manifestly it would be an unfair discrimination against the candidate for medical practice to require him to belong to a certain medical sect or to graduate from a given school, but it is equally manifest that it is not only fair but absolutely essential that he should be grounded in anatomy and physiology and kindred fundamental sciences upon which all practice of medicine rests. It is conceivable that a man might get this knowledge and this practice in some other way than by the aid of the medical school and the hospital, and if he could show his knowledge and his skill by a competent examination he should be allowed to do so. Such cases, however, must be very rare. The candidate who is seeking to enter the profession by some other path than the hard and exacting path of a good medical school and hospital is in nearly every case

seeking to get his knowledge by practicing on the public and being paid for learning. Similarly the candidate for the profession of the law ought to have something more than a superficial knowledge of the practice of the courts of his community. He should at least have some knowledge of the history of jurisprudence, of the underlying principles of law and of legal processes, some conception of the administration of justice, some study of the relations of equity to technique. Plainly, the least that can be required of a candidate for these professions is a fair grounding in the fundamental science of our day and a measure of participation in the actual application of that science in the practice. Most intelligent men will concede so much, but are not always ready to admit the further requirement that the candidate in law or in medicine must present also the evidence of a good general education, such, for example, as can be gained by a college course of not less than two years' duration. That this condition is essential to the maintenance of the character of the profession and that it forms the only effective means of sifting out the worthy from the unworthy, the fit from the unfit, is the conviction of those who have given the matter most thought. Without exception the professional schools of low grade, poor courses, and sham examinations are those which admit students without the preparation of a general education.

Not only is the requirement of a good general education justified on the practical ground that thus only can capable men be commonly obtained, but it is absolutely essential in the maintenance of the professions themselves. To become a good lawyer or physician, it is not enough to know the mere technique of practice. Such a man should be also a student of his race and of its history, with sympathies fully developed by a contact with life and with books. The reason for this and the justification for its requirement lie in the fact that these callings are professions, and such qualities are necessary in the members of a profession. This distinction is fundamental and one which in late years we have been as a nation disposed to forget.

Aside from all question of intellectual basis or content, the distinction between a business and a profession does not lie in any difference of honor in the pursuit of one or of another, but in the obligations which one assumes. However honorable a business calling may be, the man who enters it makes no pretense of any other intention than the honest pursuit of his own gain. He who enters a profession likewise does so for his own advantage, but he also undertakes certain obligations to the calling itself and to the public. He is under obligation to consider the interest of the public as well as his own, and this is one reason why these great callings have differentiated into professions—because those who practice them accept the obligation to the calling. Bacon has expressed the idea in the introduction to *The Maxims of the Law* in the phrase, "I hold every man a debtor to his profession." It is the acknowledgment of this debt and the effort to pay it which differentiate a profession from a business. That debt devolves upon him who enters one of these great professions the obligation to fit himself for it, the obligation to conserve the honor and advance

the cause of his profession, and above all to remember in his practice his duty to the state as well as to himself. It is only through the observance of these ideals that a profession can remain a profession.

Those who have studied the tendencies of this nation since the close of our civil war have had reason to feel alarm over the diminishing respect for law. As a people we regard the law lightly, and our habits in this matter are growing worse rather than better. Many factors have conjoined to bring about this state of affairs, but one of the most important lies at the door of those who profess the law. Legal process in our nation is slow and costly. Justice is hard to get. The great mass of the people believe, with greater or less reason, that in reaching decisions, legal technicalities obscure equity. The evolution of the legal process has resembled that of our national game of baseball which has become a pitcher's game. The administration of law presents to the general public more and more the spectacle of a game in which the expert high-priced attorney outplays judge and jury. Lawyers of the highest eminence and of irreproachable private life have served interests which were plainly against public policy and in violation of the interests of the public. There has seemed to be no limit beyond which a lawyer might not go in the service of a client who employed him to circumvent, not to uphold, the law. Such men have been unmindful of the debt to their profession; they are in the business of law, not in the profession of law. The ideals of the profession have been lowered by the great mass of men who have taken up the law as a business.

The profession of medicine in our country has suffered in a similar way. Any one familiar with the medical practice of such a country as Germany, for example, must have been struck with the difference in the attitude of the German and of the American physician to his profession. A large proportion of German practitioners devote part of their time to research. They accept the ideal that a man must better his profession. They decline to give up their whole time to paid practice. The number of American physicians who take this position is small, indeed, and they are apt to be looked down upon by their colleagues. The great mass of American physicians, however skilful in the practice, are in the business of medicine.

The low terms of admission to great callings are partly responsible for these conditions. So long as the door stands open to the poorly educated, the ill-prepared, and the morally weak candidates, so long will the calling be pulled down beneath the level of a true profession. There is no way by which the public can assure itself that every man who enters either of these professions ought to do so. But it can at least exclude the manifestly unfit by the just requirement of a fair general education and proof of a knowledge of the fundamental sciences upon which the profession rests. Thus both public interest and the integrity of the professions may be conserved. The question whether law is to be a business or a profession is a critical one in determining the stability of popular government.

DENOMINATIONAL BOARDS IN EDUCATION

THE public has long been familiar with state supervision and inspection of schools in the United States, at least so far as elementary and secondary education is concerned. We have no supervision of higher education, except in the case of the state of New York. Such supervision as exists is, however, confined almost exclusively to the tax-supported schools. There is no scrutiny of private schools to ascertain what standards are maintained or the relation of such schools to the general system of education.

Thus has arisen the great multiplication of colleges calling for support and competing, in many cases, with each other for students in a manner demoralizing to teachers and pupils. The exigencies of this situation are in part responsible for the creation of the various denominational boards of education. It was clear that if a religious body was to support colleges, and colleges in many states, some central educational authority would tend not only to lessen useless competition, but also to increase unity and efficiency. We find, therefore, a number of such organizations to-day exercising wide influence over large areas, dealing with secondary as well as with higher education.

With these boards of education the officers of the Carnegie Foundation have had cordial and interesting relations. Notwithstanding the fact that the Foundation is estopped from the granting of retiring allowances in colleges controlled by a denomination, it nevertheless found common ground with these organizations in the consideration of education from a general rather than from a local point of view. Furthermore, there exists the greatest latitude in the relations which the colleges under these boards hold to the churches to which they are assigned,—a relation varying from actual control to one of tradition only.

Those who are studying the general progress of education are naturally interested in the work of these boards and in their attitude toward educational progress. They are also concerned in knowing whether this work is primarily one of education or one of religious propaganda; whether the denominational school and college are undertaken on the ground of a conscious fitness for teaching, or whether they form part of the regular machinery of the religious organization. The relations of these boards to education are of great interest, and I have endeavored in the following pages to condense from their annual year books such statements as may fairly represent their general purposes in education, so far as these can be learned from printed reports.

Before entering upon a description of the organization and work of these boards, it may be worth while to state briefly the influences which have hitherto operated in bringing colleges into related groups, the connecting thread being in many cases the denominational tie. On the other hand, it is interesting to note how little this has accomplished in promoting unity and coöperation among colleges of the same denomination.

The earliest educational foundations in the United States were established under the supervision, more or less direct, of some of the Christian churches. Thus the relation between Harvard College and the established Congregational churches of the Colony of Massachusetts Bay was a close one, the ministers of certain towns long retaining seats upon the board of overseers. Similarly Yale College was in direct relationship with the Congregational churches of Connecticut, the charter retaining for over one hundred years a provision for a certain number of Congregational divines as trustees, and when, during the middle of the eighteenth century, the president of Yale and several professors announced their intention to enter the Church of England, the announcement was, as a matter of course, accompanied by their resignations from the college faculty. King's College in New York City (now Columbia University) was established under the auspices of the Church of England, the Archbishop of Canterbury being the Visitor of the college, and Trinity Parish in New York providing the college with its first site. The Venerable Society for the Propagation of the Gospel occupied, until the revolution, the position of patron of King's College, and succored it frequently with funds.

Princeton was, notwithstanding an absence of charter control, generally considered as distinctively a Presbyterian college as Rutgers was a Dutch Reformed one, and in general it may be said that until well along in the nineteenth century, whether colleges were legally connected with a church or simply associated with a church in thought and service, almost every educational institution looked up to some one of the churches for fostering care and means of growth, and in return gave to that church the influence to be derived from the regulation of the form of worship in the college chapel and from the free use of the college pulpit. It may be remarked that the sundering of the legal charter ties in the cases of Harvard, Yale, and Columbia did not prevent those institutions from remaining in this relation of community of worship with the church by which they had formerly been controlled. It was not usual for a college to be established, like Leland Stanford Junior University, hospitable and receptive to all of the religious bodies to which its students belong, but on especially intimate terms with none. The extraordinary charter requirements of Girard College show how, in the period of its incorporation, it was thought almost necessary to accompany freedom from any form of ecclesiastical control with the denial of ordinary courtesies to ecclesiastics.

In the Roman Catholic institutions the connection with the church is as a rule maintained through the ownership of the entire property of the college or university by one of the religious orders. Thus the first Roman Catholic college in the United States was founded by the Jesuit Fathers when they secured a charter for Georgetown University, and at the present time this order and some of the other orders, particularly the Christian Brothers, control a number of educational institutions, scattered over many states. It was not until 1899 that all of the Roman Catholic colleges were brought into intimate relationship with each other through the forma-

tion, by ~~fifty-three colleges~~ under the guidance of the rector of the Catholic University of America, of an Association of Catholic Colleges of the United States.

Harvard and Yale were both Congregational institutions, but no central authority bound them together in any form of union. At a later date Lafayette College had as close relations with Methodist institutions as it had with a Presbyterian institution like Washington and Jefferson. This was the situation in all the religious organizations. On the other hand, as soon as a Roman Catholic order established a second college or university the two institutions formed a group, obeying, in as far as it seemed advisable to the heads of the order, a single authority. At least the institutions joined in carrying out a single policy, and, instead of contrasts, harmony in matters of educational direction could easily be secured. To-day, in certain of the religious orders, these groups are extensive and embrace many institutions. The close union between the colleges of a Roman Catholic order is thus the first illustration of what has been for a considerable time the policy in several Protestant churches through their educational societies or college boards. The Association of Catholic Colleges in the United States is, on the other hand, rather a federation corresponding to the Ohio State Association of Colleges, or the Association of Colleges of the Middle States and Maryland, for it concerns itself with pedagogical questions and matters of inter-college comity more than with policies of college administration and economy.

Partly out of the lack of unity among colleges of the same denomination grew the idea of a central board, which might have supervision, at least of a certain sort, over all the colleges and schools of a given denomination. Of these the more important are the Presbyterian College Board, the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, the Congregational Education Society, and the Board of Education of the Reformed Church in America, of whose organization and educational policy brief descriptions follow.

PRESBYTERIAN COLLEGE BOARD

In 1888 the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, acting upon the advice of a special committee on education, established the Presbyterian Board of Aid for Colleges and Academies, now simplified into the Presbyterian College Board. Since 1877 committees of the general assembly had been considering the entire question of education in its relation to the church, especially as it applied to the field of home missions. The special committee had sat for two years and had taken unusual care. Its report is comprehensive. The members say that in the opinion of the committee the supply of candidates for the Presbyterian ministry can be maintained at the number sufficient to supply existing pulpits, and to create the new pulpits needed, only by maintaining colleges in vital connection with the Presbyterian Church. In the more settled portions of the country

such colleges already exist, and the duty is to see that the right spiritual atmosphere is maintained in them. But especial emphasis is placed upon the wisdom of planting new colleges in the sparsely settled and rapidly growing western states. These new colleges will materially assist the missionary movement in its present condition, and by training up ministers and missionaries on the ground, will enable the newer communities to supply in the future their own needs, and themselves pass on the benefit bestowed upon themselves. To assist the Presbyterian colleges already in being and to found new ones in strategic positions, a separate board, distinct from the old board of education, was necessary.

As a result of this recommendation, the Presbyterian College Board was constituted. It consists of twenty-four members, one half of whom shall be laymen, both ministers and laymen to be elected by the general assembly. The offices since 1904 have been at 156 Fifth Avenue, New York. According to its constitution, following the detailed recommendation of the special committee of 1881, the functions of the board are to gather funds from the Presbyterian Church and disburse them among the Presbyterian colleges, and to guide the munificence of Presbyterian givers that their contributions to education, made directly by them, shall nevertheless be along the lines which the policy of the board approves. This is stated in paragraph 8 (d) of the constitution thus: "The board shall endeavor to have all gifts for Christian education within our church either passed through its treasury or reported to it." Gifts paid into the treasury of the board shall be paid out under the following provisions of the constitution, Section VIII (a) and (b):

"(a) Every college hereafter established, as a condition of receiving aid, shall be organically connected with the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, or by perpetual Charter provision shall have two thirds of its Board of Control members of this Church.

"(b) In case of colleges already established, and not included under the above provisions, appropriations for endowment shall be so made as to revert to the Board whenever these colleges shall pass from Presbyterian control."

The board has been instrumental in establishing a number of new colleges in the western states, such as the College of Idaho; Lenox College, Hopkinton, Iowa; Huron College in South Dakota; Montana College, Deer Lodge; Albert Lea College, Albert Lea, Minnesota; Trinity University, Waxahachie, Texas; the Presbyterian College of Florida, Eustis, and others. Westminster College, Salt Lake City, and Westminster University, Denver, are the most recent establishments of the board. In its annual report of 1907 the board points out that there are still whole states and territories in which the cry that there are "too many colleges" cannot be raised, for, as it says (page 8), "Nevada, Wyoming, North Dakota, New Mexico, Arizona, have no Presbyterian institutions of higher learning. Neither have Cuba, Porto Rico, nor Alaska, and yet we include these fields in our home mission territory."

In the last annual report of the Presbyterian College Board (1908) the principles

are laid down upon which the board will either aid colleges directly or endeavor to influence gifts to them. First, the college must require from all students for graduation a study of the Bible at least equivalent during the entire course to 144 unit hours. Second, every teacher in the college must be certified to the college board as being "of open Christian profession and possessing actual spiritual influence with students." "Of the 943 teachers last year in the colleges in relation with the board 90%, or about 96 per cent, were members of evangelical churches. This percentage is rising," and the remaining four per cent, it is explained in the report, were nearly all in the music or art department, or with some such irregular connection. In such cases the board does not insist upon the teacher being of "open Christian profession."

The third requirement of the Presbyterian College Board is that a college assisted or endowed by it shall "seek the conversion and consecration of every student as its prime business."

Below is the official list given by the Presbyterian College Board of "Institutions Coöperating with the College Board and Reporting to it."

Albany College	Albany, Oregon	James Millikin University	Decatur, Illinois
Albert Lea College	Albert Lea, Minn.	Lafayette College	Easton, Pennsylvania
Alexander College	Burkesville, Kentucky	Lake Forest College	Lake Forest, Illinois
Alma College	Alma, Michigan	Lenox College	Hopkinton, Iowa
Arkansas Cumberland Col- lege	Clarksville, Arkansas	Lincoln College	Lincoln, Illinois
Bellevue College	Bellevue, Nebraska	Lincoln University	Lincoln Univ., Pa.
Bethel College	McKensie, Tennessee	Lindenwood College	St. Charles, Missouri
Biddle University	Charlotte, N. C.	Macalester College	St. Paul, Minnesota
Blackburn University	Carlinville, Illinois	Maryville College	Maryville, Tennessee
Blairsville College	Blairsville, Pa.	Missouri Valley College	Marshall, Missouri
Buena Vista College	Storm Lake, Iowa	Montana, College of	Deer Lodge, Montana
Caldwell College	Danville, Kentucky	Occidental College	Los Angeles, Cal.
Carroll College	Waukesha, Wisconsin	Oswego College	Oswego, Kansas
Cumberland University	Lebanon, Tennessee	Park College	Parkville, Missouri
Elmira College	Elmira, New York	Parsons College	Fairfield, Iowa
Emporia, College of	Emporia, Kansas	Trinity University	Waxahachie, Texas
Florida, Pres. Coll. of	Eustis, Florida	Washington and Tuscu- lum College	Greeneville, Tennessee
Grove City College	Grove City, Pa.	Waynesburg College	Waynesburg, Pa.
Hanover College	Hanover, Indiana	Western College	Oxford, Ohio
Hastings College	Hastings, Nebraska	Westminster College	Fulton, Missouri
Henry Kendall College	Muskogee, Oklahoma	Westminster College	Salt Lake City, Utah
Highland University	Highland, Kansas	Westminster University	Denver, Colorado
Huron College	Huron, S. D.	Whitworth College	Tacoma, Wash.
Idaho, College of	Caldwell, Idaho	Wilson College	Chambersburg, Pa.
Illinois College	Jacksonville, Illinois	Wooster, University of	Wooster, Ohio
Indianola College	Wynnewood, Okla.		

The names of the following colleges also appear in the year book of the board, but, in order that their relation to the church or to the board may not be confused, they are given under this statement: "The following institutions are not connected with the Presbyterian Church by any legal ties, nor are they subject to ecclesiastical

control. Their history, however, and associations with the life and work of our Church are such as to justify our earnest coöperation with them."

Central University of Kentucky, Danville, Kentucky
 Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa
 New York University, New York, New York
 Wabash College, Crawfordsville, Indiana
 Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pennsylvania

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH

The Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church owes its origin to the appointment of a committee by the general conference of 1864 to consider "to what object and in what proportions the moneys raised as connectional funds shall be appropriated." This committee recommended the organization of a board to take charge of all the moneys contributed during the centenary celebration of 1866, and thereafter, for the relief of poor scholars and the advancement of general educational interests. The general conference of 1868 approved of the committee's recommendation and instituted the board.

The board began its work with a fund of about \$84,000, six sevenths of which had been contributed as a part of the "Sunday-school Children's Fund." In 1870, the year following the formal incorporation of the board, it proposed to the annual conferences that the second Sunday in June of each year be celebrated as children's day, and a collection be taken, to be given to the Children's Fund. The general conference of 1872 officially recommended this observance of children's day, and asked for collections from all the Sunday-schools in aid of the fund. In 1892 the general conference made it the duty of every pastor to observe this day, to take a collection for the fund, and to forward it to the board of education. In the meantime, in 1884 and in 1888, it had been provided that the moneys in this fund should be distributed annually in loans to students and for current work, accumulation of endowment funds only to take place where the gifts and bequests specifically provided therefor. In 1907 the collections for the children's fund amounted to \$85,000.

The general conference of 1892 revised the chapter of the Discipline concerning education, and a university senate was erected, elective by the general conference, to formulate the standard of requirements for the baccalaureate degree in institutions of the Methodist Church. The board of education was ordered to apply these regulations of the university senate, and classify the Methodist institutions according as they met these requirements. The senate convened for the first time in 1893, and after adopting a standard of requirements for college graduation, reported its action to the board. The board, in 1894, began to apply these resolves of the senate, the annual report of the board for 1895 classifying the Methodist institutions according to the senate's action into colleges and academies respectively. In 1896 the general conference enacted that no institution of intended collegiate grade esta-

blished after that date should be eligible for connectional recognition or aid unless it should have secured the approval of the board of education before its establishment. From time to time the powers of the board have been variously enlarged. In 1907 besides the children's collection already mentioned, applicable solely to student relief, the board received \$50,000 as the return by students of loans made in previous years, and it had an income of \$17,000, enough to pay all of its running expenses, from its invested funds. A publication, *The Christian Student*, appearing quarterly, contains the annual report of the board, statistics of the institutions connected with it, and other literature concerning higher education in the Methodist Church. The board does not make direct grants to institutions.

The university senate consists of fifteen members, all elected by the general conference, one at large, the other fourteen for the fourteen districts into which the Union has been divided for this purpose. The members are always presidents or chancellors of Methodist colleges or universities. The following resolutions, which were adopted at the meeting of the senate in February, 1908, indicate the present policy of the body, and the lines along which it plans its educational activities in the future:

Resolved, That while the University Senate is not yet ready to prescribe as an immediate requirement a measurably higher standard for the college on the official list, it is deemed best to advise all our institutions to move as speedily as possible to the following standard: (1) To the requirement of a full four years' preparatory course for entrance to the freshman class. (2) To the requirement of full four years of collegiate work as leading to the Bachelor's degree—the course to include only such studies as properly belong in the College of Liberal Arts. (3) To the requirement of a faculty of not less than six professors, giving their time exclusively to collegiate as distinguished from preparatory work. (4) To the requirement of not less than fifty students regularly enrolled in the four college classes. (5) To the requirement of not less than \$200,000 as actual productive endowment as necessary to give an institution stability and to secure for it the confidence of its constituency."

The following memorial to the general conference was adopted:

"It is the earnest opinion of the University Senate that the work of our present Board of Education should be modified so that it could aid institutions as well as students especially by becoming the custodian of general endowments for the educational work of the church."

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SOUTH

The Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, was established by the general conference which met in Memphis, Tennessee, in the spring of 1894. The charter was formally adopted at a meeting held in Monteagle, Tennessee, in the summer of 1895. At this meeting, the board drew up a paper setting forth the aims and policy of the board, and ordered the paper to be published and widely disseminated throughout the church.

This document declares the aim of the board to be, first, to promote the endowment of existing colleges which have the elements of success and the necessary conditions of usefulness; second, to repress the tendency to multiply institutions with inadequate prospects of support. This tendency, says the board, "has strewed our territory with more dead colleges than we have now in operation and dragged to the dust with them the credit of endorsing conferences." The third aim of the board was stated to be to encourage the establishment of academies, "which," in the words of the board, "are especially demanded by present educational conditions, and are easily within the reach of our means and should be placed in close correlation with such institutions of our church as the annual conference may direct." The fourth and final aim of the board was announced to be "to complete our system by correlating as rapidly as possible our conference colleges with the graduate and professional departments of Vanderbilt University." To carry out these aims the board proposed to bring into cooperation with itself the conference boards of education, and for the more perfect organization of the educational work of the several conferences, to ask each conference to appoint a secretary of education. The board also proposed "to secure full and accurate statistics of our education work;" to have addresses delivered; pamphlets, tracts, and articles prepared and printed on the subject of Christian education and the conditions and needs of the educational work of the Methodist Church, South. The board, further, was to urge each annual conference to make such assessments for the educational work within their respective boundaries as, in the words of the Discipline, "shall be adequate to maintain them upon a plane worthy of the confidence of the public and the patronage of our church." This statement of the aims and purposes of the board contained also an appeal generally for contributions "to assist colleges already founded to a solid position and adequate facilities," and it was also specifically stated that "no money will be appropriated merely to maintain institutions as they are." The board of education closed its announcement and appeal to the church by saying that "we can apply to advantage the large contributions of the wealthy and the smaller gifts of the poor. The latter will ultimately suffice, we believe, to secure an educated man in every pulpit in Southern Methodism."

At the meeting of the board in 1896 steps were taken for securing complete statistics of the educational institutions of the Methodist Church, South. A committee was also appointed "to report on the possibility of bringing about a uniform standard in our institutions and of correlating them." At the 1897 meeting special attention was given to the work of the teachers' bureau under the management of the board, and the secretary of the board was authorized to publish an educational quarterly. In 1898 the directors at their meeting paid much attention to education among the negroes under their supervision.

In the last five years a number of important pieces of work have engaged the attention of the board of education. One of these has been the question of the classi-

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fication of the educational institutions of the Methodist Church, South, on which the board now has a permanent committee. In 1907 the educational commission made a careful and comprehensive report on that subject, which has been adopted by the board. This report classifies the educational institutions of the church into three grades. The first is that of universities; and a university is defined as an institution having "a productive endowment of not less than one million dollars, and organized on a basis of professional schools and of elective studies, with departments of original research." Colleges constitute the second grade, and "in order to be classed as a college an institution must employ not less than seven professors, or adjunct professors, giving their entire time (at least fifteen hours a week) to college instruction. It shall have, exclusive of matriculation and tuition fees, a permanent annual income of five thousand dollars, which may arise from interest on endowment fund, conference assessments, private gifts, or net earnings from board or dormitories." There are two classes of colleges, Class A and Class B. In order to be admitted to Class A a college must have an endowment fund (unless it is a college for women) of one hundred thousand dollars, and after 1909-10 shall require fourteen units (11.2 units of the Carnegie Foundation), on four of which the student may be conditioned provided he offer three units of English and two and a half in mathematics. Colleges of Class B shall require twelve units for entrance (9.6 units of the Carnegie Foundation) with the same rules in regard to conditional admission as are in force in Class A colleges.

It will not be necessary to recapitulate the various fields of activity over which the operation of the board extends. It will be sufficient to give one feature as illustrative of their nature in general. For several years the board has been active in planting educational institutions of the Methodist Church, South, in the northwest and on the Pacific coast. A junior college at Milton, Oregon, has been in operation for several years, having recently dropped the designation of college proper and planned to correlate its work with that of Whitman College at Walla Walla, Washington. Buildings and grounds have already been secured for a similar institution at Stevensville, Montana, the Montana Conference Training School. The most elaborate work of this character, however, is the careful foundation which is being laid by the board for an institution in California. The following quotations from the report of the secretary of the board of education in 1907 will give the plan of this establishment:

"1. It is to be under the control of this board until it is well established and in successful operation. The board is to provide its faculty and direct their work. In this way the school will be saved from the mistakes common to such enterprises in their beginnings.

"2. It is to be of the junior college grade. No academic degrees will be conferred under its present charter. It will do four years of high school work and two—*viz.* the freshman and sophomore—of college work. It will adjust its curriculum to those

of the two leading universities of the state, the University of California, at Berkeley, and the Leland Stanford Junior, at Palo Alto. . . . The work we are to do will be of the same grade as that done by these institutions.

"3. At the same time our school will be thoroughly denominational and religious. The constant purpose will be to promote the religious life of the students. In this way we hope to keep our own institution religiously strong, and also, by injecting from year to year large bodies of our graduates into the great universities, to provide for them a leaven that will greatly aid in their Christian development."

Below is the list of educational institutions, classified according to the grades described above, as given in the report of the board for 1908. Institutions in foreign countries are omitted.

Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee

CLASS A, COLLEGES

Central College	Fayette, Missouri	Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Lynchburg, Virginia
Emory College	Oxford, Georgia	Southwestern University	Georgetown, Texas
Hendrix College	Conway, Arkansas	Trinity College	Durham, N. C.
Millsaps College	Jackson, Mississippi	Wesleyan Female College	Macon, Georgia
Randolph-Macon College	Ashland, Virginia	Wofford College	Spartanburg, S. C.

CLASS B, COLLEGES

Emory and Henry College	Emory, Virginia	Polytechnic College	Fort Worth, Texas
Galloway College	Searcy, Arkansas	Southern University	Greensboro, Alabama
Kentucky Wesleyan College	Winchester, Ky.		

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Alabama Conference Female College	Tuskegee, Alabama	Greensboro Female College	Greensboro, N. C.
Andrew Female College	Cuthbert, Georgia	Grenada College	Grenada, Mississippi
Athens College	Athens, Alabama	Henderson College	Arkadelphia, Ark.
Birmingham College	Birmingham, Ala.	Hiwassee College	Sweetwater, Tenn.
Bowling Green Female Seminary	Bowling Green, Va.	Howard-Payne College	Fayette, Missouri
Centenary College of Louisiana	Shreveport, Louisiana	Lagrange College	Lagrange, Georgia
Centenary Female College	Cleveland, Tennessee	Lander College	Greenwood, S. C.
Central College for Women	Lexington, Missouri	Logan College for Young Ladies	Russellville, Ky.
Chappell Hill Female College	Chappell Hill, Texas	Louisburg College	Louisburg, N. C.
Clarendon College	Clarendon, Texas	Mansfield Female College	Mansfield, Louisiana
Columbia College	Columbia, S. C.	Martha Washington College	Abingdon, Virginia
Columbia College	Milton, Oregon	Martin College	Pulaski, Tennessee
Coronal Institute	San Marcos, Texas	Memphis Conference Female Institute	Jackson, Tennessee
Davenport College	Lenoir, North Carolina	Millersburg Female College	Millersburg, Kentucky
Epworth University	Oklahoma City, Okla.	Morris Harvey College	Barboursville, W. Va.

Morrisville College	Morrisville, Missouri	South Georgia College	McRae, Georgia
North Texas Female College	Sherman, Texas	Southern College	Sutherland, Florida
Northwest Missouri College	Albany, Missouri	Southern Seminary	Buena Vista, Virginia
Pacific Methodist College	Santa Rosa, California	Spaulding Female College	Muskogee, Oklahoma
Port Gibson Female College	Port Gibson, Miss.	Sullins College	Bristol, Virginia
San Angelo Collegiate Institute	San Angelo, Texas	Warthen College	Wrightsville, Georgia
San Antonio Female College	San Antonio, Texas	Weaverville College	Weaverville, N. C.
		Whitworth College	Brookhaven, Miss.
		Willie Halsell College	Vinita, Oklahoma
		Young L. G. Harris College	Young Harris, Ga.

CONGREGATIONAL EDUCATION SOCIETY

On December 4, 1816, there was incorporated in the city of Boston the American Society for the Education of Pious Youth for the Gospel Ministry. This organization was the result of a movement set on foot about six months before that date by a few young men who banded themselves together "to educate pious young men for the ministry." Gradually the clergy and laymen of Congregational Boston became interested, a constitution was framed, and the formal society finally came into being. The object of the society, as stated, was to aid "indigent young men of talents and hopeful piety in acquiring a learned and competent education for the gospel ministry." The opening meeting of the society was held December 7, 1816.

On the occasion of this meeting need of trained ministers in the west and south was set forth. Within eleven months \$4000 were collected from the churches, and forty young men "of hopeful piety" in Canada and the United States were being aided financially in their education. Three years later, on January 31, 1820, the name of the society was changed by an act of the General Court to the American Education Society.

In the west a somewhat similar movement had been started, out of which grew the founding of Illinois College in Jacksonville. The new society, called the Western College Society, had no strong organization. It was not until June 29, 1843, that this society was formally launched as the Society for the Promotion of Collegiate and Theological Education. On March 9, 1874, this second organization was united with the Boston society under the new name of the American College and Education Society. Until 1893 the work of the American College and Education Society was confined to collegiate and seminary education; but by an act of legislature of March 25, 1893, its scope was enlarged to include academic training and its name was changed to the American Education Society. The need for academies which should give good college preparatory courses was felt in the west and southwest, where secondary education was especially weak, and within three years the society was aiding "a score of academies from twelve different states and territories."

In September of the same year the society consolidated with the New West Edu-

cation Commission, an organization incorporated in Chicago in 1879, whose object was "the promotion of Christian civilization in Utah and New Mexico . . . through the agency of Christian schools." The consolidation added mission-school work to the already large scope of the society.

On March 9, 1894, the name of the society was again changed, this time to the Congregational Education Society, the title which it bears to-day. Its object, as finally set forth in the constitution adopted April 11, 1904, is "the promotion of Christian education by assisting needy young men of piety and ability in acquiring an education for the gospel ministry; by aiding theological and collegiate institutions, academies, and other schools in which children and youth are trained under Christian teachers." By an act of legislature approved February 25, 1907, and adopted by the corporation June 12, 1907, the powers of the society were enlarged by the authority "to promote Christian civilization in any territory or country acquired or hereafter acquired by the United States . . . and in foreign countries, by endowing, assisting, or establishing academic, collegiate, or theological institutions of learning therein, and by . . . aiding indigent children and young persons . . . seeking an education in such institutions."

Up to 1906 the society had made large contributions in all branches of its work. More than \$2,457,118 had been given to thirty colleges and seminaries in the ninety years of its existence—an average of over \$27,300 a year; \$354,424 had been donated, within fourteen years, to academies, making here an annual average of \$25,316; \$887,964 had been contributed toward the mission schools since the beginning of the New West Education Commission. According to a statement published in 1906 by the society itself the total for all its departments from their respective beginnings until that year was \$5,541,209.

The list of colleges which the society has aided reflects on it the greatest credit. The colleges are:

Beloit College	Beloit, Wisconsin	Olivet College	Olivet, Michigan
Carleton College	Northfield, Minnesota	Pacific University	Forest Grove, Oregon
College of St. Paul, The	St. Paul, Minnesota	Pomona College	Claremont, California
Colorado College	Colorado Springs, Col.	Ripon College	Ripon, Wisconsin
Doane College	Crete, Nebraska	Wabash College	Crawfordsville, Ind.
Fargo College	Fargo, North Dakota	Washburn College	Topeka, Kansas
Heidelberg College	Tiffin, Ohio	Western Reserve University	Cleveland, Ohio
Illinois College	Jacksonville, Illinois	Whitman College	Walla Walla, Wash.
Iowa College	Grinnell, Iowa	Wilberforce University	Wilberforce, Ohio
Knox College	Galesburg, Illinois	Wittenberg College	Springfield, Ohio
Marietta College	Marietta, Ohio	Yankton College	Yankton, S. Dakota
Oberlin College	Oberlin, Ohio		

Four institutions are being aided at the present time, namely, Fairmount College, Wichita, Kansas; Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida; Kingfisher College, Kingfisher, Oklahoma; and Redfield College, Redfield, South Dakota.

The policy of the society in regard to the colleges it assists is exceptional. The so-

society seeks to aid institutions financially and not to control their administration. According to the rules of the board of directors, an institution, to receive any assistance, "must be and continue under the control of a self-perpetuating board of trustees." There are also the requirements that the majority of these trustees shall be members in good and regular standing in a Congregational Church and that every president shall be a member of an evangelical church. When a college, however, like Iowa College or Beloit, is upon a sound financial and educational basis, the society is willing to trust the future of the college to the traditions under which it was established. In regard to this point, Dr. Edward S. Tead, secretary of the society, wrote to the president of the Foundation: "We think it best to adhere to our policy, especially in the case of young institutions that need the fostering care of denominational strength. But when a college has reached maturity and feels that it can go alone, and states to the society that it wishes to be independent, then the society will probably accede to its request."

BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE REFORMED CHURCH IN AMERICA

In 1812 the General Synod of the Reformed Church in America ordered that collections be taken up in the churches for the sustenance of needy students for the ministry. The copyright of the Psalm and Hymn Book was also secured to the synod for this purpose and several bequests were received from members of the church. But the sum available continued small, and in 1828 a number of ministers and other friends of education met in the lecture room of the Collegiate Church in New York City, to consider the propriety of organizing a board of education.

As a result of this meeting a board of education was organized, with Colonel Henry Rutgers as president. The amount granted to a beneficiary was at first limited to ninety dollars a year, being designed to aid a student rather than sustain him fully. During the first year of its operation the board, with its auxiliary societies, assisted about twenty students. In 1831 this education society, to which donations began to be left, requested the general synod to take charge of it as the synod's own board. Accordingly, in 1832, the synod constituted a new board, with the same officers as the former board, and the funds of the old board were turned over to the care of the synod.

The board was incorporated in 1869 and since then it has retained in its own hands the scholarship funds entrusted to its care. These now amount to \$127,000. Before the organization of the board as a corporation the funds collected for this purpose were held either by the general synod itself or by Rutgers College. The total amount of the several funds is now about \$400,000. The interest on this amount, with the sum received each year through the collections in the churches and through individual gifts, is devoted to the assistance of students, whether in college and seminary, who are preparing for the ministry. A considerable proportion of this amount goes for instruction in the west.

In 1865 the scope of the board was enlarged beyond the giving of assistance to ministerial students. The general synod ordered the board to cooperate with the various classes in the establishment of academies and classical schools within their bounds. Rutgers College is so strong that it does not need, as an institution, the direct help of the board, but the other collegiate foundation of the Reformed Church in America, Hope College in Michigan, has matured under the auspices of the board from a merely academic institution into its collegiate character. In addition to academies, the parochial schools of the church are also helped to some extent by the board. The total disbursements are now about \$40,000 a year.

HENRY S. PRITCHETT

October 18, 1908.

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DE MORTUIS

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WILLIAM ROLLIN SHIPMAN

WILLIAM ROLLIN SHIPMAN was born on May 4, 1836, at Granville, Vermont. He was educated at Royalton Academy and at Middlebury College, from which he received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1859. In 1862 he received the degree of master of arts. From 1859 until 1863 he was principal of the Green Mountain Institute, South Woodstock, Vermont, and this position he resigned to take charge of the movement which resulted in the founding of Goddard Seminary, Barre, Vermont. He was president of the board of trustees of the seminary for many years. In 1864 he was appointed professor of rhetoric, logic, and English literature in Tufts College, and he remained an active member of the faculty for forty-three years. From 1900 to 1907 he was dean of the College of Letters.

In 1865 Professor Shipman was ordained a minister of the Universalist Church. In 1882 he received the degree of doctor of divinity from St. Lawrence University, and in 1899 Tufts College conferred upon him the degree of doctor of laws.

The Carnegie Foundation, on March 28, 1907, upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Tufts College, voted to Professor Shipman a retiring allowance. He died in Somerville, Massachusetts, on January 15, 1908.

HERMAN DE CLERCQ STEARNS

HERMAN DE CLERCQ STEARNS was born on September 14, 1865, at Joliet, Illinois. He received his preliminary education in the public schools of Joliet, and became a teacher in the Joliet High School, afterwards becoming principal of the public school at Lake Forest, Illinois. While holding this position he matriculated with the class of 1892 of Lake Forest College, but left that institution in 1891 to enter Leland Stanford Junior University as one of the students of its opening year.

He received from the university the degree of bachelor of arts in 1892, and the degree of master of arts in 1896. In the latter year he was appointed instructor in physics, in 1896 assistant professor of physics, and in 1900 associate professor of physics. During the academic year 1897-8 he had studied meteorology at the University of Berlin, and in 1902 he published the results of his experimentation in the *Determination of the Magnetic Susceptibility of Water*.

Professor Stearns's health having failed, the Carnegie Foundation on June 7, 1906, at the request of the board of trustees of Leland Stanford Junior University, granted to him a temporary allowance on the ground of disability. Professor Stearns died on October 21, 1907.

www.libtool.com.cn JOHN HOLMES RAND

JOHN HOLMES RAND was born on August 3, 1888, at Parsonsfield, Maine. He received his early education at North Parsonsfield Seminary and at the Maine State Seminary, Lewiston, and was one of the sixteen students who in 1862 signed the petition to the principal asking that they might receive a college education in the seminary. When, as a result of this petition, Bates College was opened in 1863, he was one of the members of the first freshman class. He received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1867.

During his college course he had acted for one half year as principal of Litchfield Academy, and upon his graduation he was appointed professor of mathematics in the New Hampton (New Hampshire) Literary and Biblical Institute. In 1876 he was appointed professor of mathematics in Bates College and occupied that chair for thirty-one years.

On October 8, 1907, upon the nomination of the board of fellows of Bates College, the Carnegie Foundation granted to Professor Rand a retiring allowance. He died in Lewiston, Maine, on November 7, 1907.

CHARLES SCOTT MAGOWAN

CHARLES SCOTT MAGOWAN was born on December 1, 1858, at Fairfield, Iowa. He was graduated from the State University of Iowa with the degree of civil engineer in 1884, and received the degree of master of arts in 1887. After several years spent in the professional services of the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railroad, and of the Union Pacific Railroad, he was appointed in 1886 assistant professor of engineering in the State University of Iowa. In 1894 his title was changed to that of assistant professor of civil engineering, and in 1903 he was made professor of municipal and sanitary engineering.

In 1898 he was elected city engineer of Iowa City, and served until 1896. In 1899 he was again elected and served until 1907. During his terms of service the paving system of the city was largely extended and the sanitary sewer system made to cover almost the entire municipality. Professor Magowan was a member of the Iowa Engineering Society, the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, and the League of Iowa Municipalities. Since 1898 he had been treasurer of the Alumni Association of the State University of Iowa.

Professor Magowan's health having become impaired, the Carnegie Foundation on October 8, 1907, granted to him a temporary retiring allowance. But the hope of his recovery was disappointed, and he died at Iowa City on November 14, 1907.

www.libtool.com.cn CHARLES PHILO MATTHEWS

CHARLES PHILO MATTHEWS was born on September 18, 1867, at Covington, New York, and was graduated from Cornell University with the degree of mechanical engineer in 1892. He was appointed upon his graduation to be assistant in physics at that university, and in 1893 was made instructor in physics. He held this position for three years, and in 1896 accepted the appointment as associate professor of electrical engineering in Purdue University. In 1904 he was made professor of electrical engineering and director of the electrical laboratory. He received the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1901 from Cornell University.

The Carnegie Foundation, on October 8, 1907, granted to him a temporary retiring allowance on account of serious illness. Change of climate, however, failed to bring the hoped-for improvement, and Professor Matthews died at Phoenix, Arizona, on November 23, 1907.

CHARLES AUGUSTUS YOUNG

CHARLES AUGUSTUS YOUNG was born on December 15, 1834, at Hanover, New Hampshire, where his father and grandfather had each occupied the chair of natural philosophy and astronomy in Dartmouth College. He was graduated from Dartmouth College in 1853, standing at the head of his class. From 1853 to 1856 he taught Latin and Greek at Phillips Andover Academy, and in 1856 he was appointed to be professor of mathematics, natural philosophy, and astronomy in Western Reserve University, where he remained until 1866. In 1862 he served before Vicksburg as captain of Company B, Eighty-fifth Ohio Volunteer Infantry.

In 1866 he accepted the professorship of natural philosophy and astronomy in Dartmouth College, which chair he occupied until 1877. During his professorship at Dartmouth he was a member of a scientific party which observed the solar eclipse of August, 1869, at Burlington, Iowa, and subsequently of another party which observed the eclipse of December, 1870, at Jerez, Spain. He was also connected with the Transit of Venus Expedition to Peking in 1874.

Professor Young resigned from the Dartmouth faculty in 1877 to become professor of astronomy in Princeton University. In 1882 he made at Princeton extensive observations of the Transit of Venus. In 1891 he received from the French Academy of Sciences the Janssen medal for observations on the reversal of the lines of the solar spectrum. In 1900 he was the director of the party which observed the solar eclipse at Wadesboro, North Carolina. He devised the form of automatic spectroscope which is in general use, and he discovered the solar "reversing layer" which produces a bright-line spectrum corresponding to the ordinary dark-line spectrum. He was the author of *The Sun* (1882), *A General Astronomy* (1889), *Elements of Astronomy* (1890), *Lessons in Astronomy* (1891), and *Manual of Astronomy* (1902).

Professor Young was a member of the National Academy of Sciences, an associate fellow of the Boston Academy of Arts and Sciences, an honorary fellow of the New York Academy of Sciences and of the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, a foreign associate of the Royal Astronomical Society of Great Britain, and a member and sometime vice-president of the American Association for the Advancement of Science. In 1870 he received the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Pennsylvania, and in 1871 from Hamilton College. The degree of doctor of laws was conferred upon him by Wesleyan University in 1876, by Columbia University in 1887, by Western Reserve University in 1893, and by Dartmouth College in 1903.

The Carnegie Foundation, on June 7, 1906, upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Princeton University, granted to Professor Young a retiring allowance. He died in Hanover, New Hampshire, on January 3, 1908.

WILLIAM ARNOLD ANTHONY

WILLIAM ARNOLD ANTHONY was born on November 17, 1835, at Coventry, Rhode Island, and was graduated from the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University with the degree of bachelor of philosophy. He was a teacher in the Providence Conference Seminary 1859-60, and in the Delaware Literary Institute, Franklin, New York, 1862-7. From 1867 to 1869 he was professor of physics and chemistry at Antioch College, and from 1869 until 1872 he was professor of physics at the Iowa Agricultural College. In 1872 he was appointed professor of physics in Cornell University. One of the first electric generators in the country was built by Professor Anthony and installed in the shop of Sibley College. He organized the department of electrical engineering for Cornell.

In 1887 Professor Anthony resigned his chair at Cornell University in order to accept the position of consulting engineer to several large corporations in New York City. In 1892 he was asked by Cooper Union of New York to give some lectures on physics to the night classes. These classes and the day classes grew so rapidly that after 1894 he withdrew from his business engagements and devoted himself entirely to the charge of the instruction in physics in Cooper Union. He continued this work until his death. He published in 1898 *Lecture Notes on the Theory of Electrical Measurements*. In 1887 he was president of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers.

On account of Professor Anthony's singular effectiveness as a teacher of science and his pioneer work in the development of electrical engineering, the Carnegie Foundation, on November 20, 1907, granted to him a retiring allowance, to become effective upon his retirement at the conclusion of the academic year. He died at his residence in New York City on May 29, 1908.

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WALTER EUGENE COLBURN WRIGHT

WALTER EUGENE COLBURN WRIGHT was born on October 26, 1848, at Whitehall, New York, and was graduated from Oberlin College in 1865 with the degree of bachelor of arts. While an undergraduate he had served in the army in the defense of Washington. In 1868 he was graduated from the Union Theological Seminary, New York City, and at the same time received the degree of master of arts from Oberlin College. After several pastorates in Philadelphia and elsewhere, serving one year as pastor of the American Chapel in Munich, Bavaria, he became in 1881 professor of natural science at Berea College, which chair he held until 1891.

In 1891 Professor Wright became field secretary of the American Missionary Association for its schools in the south, and later district secretary of the association. Upon his retirement from his professorship at Berea, he was elected a trustee of the college and so continued until his death. In 1895 he received the degree of doctor of divinity from Berea College and from Olivet College.

In the same year he was appointed professor of social science and Christian ethics in Olivet College, which position he occupied until 1908, when on account of his valuable services to education, the Carnegie Foundation, on February 6, 1908, granted to him a retiring allowance. Professor Wright died at Olivet, Michigan, on June 26, 1908.

ROBERT A. CONDIT

ROBERT A. CONDIT was born on May 19, 1837, at Oswego, New York. He was graduated from the College of New Jersey (now Princeton University) with the degree of bachelor of arts in 1859 and served for two years as a tutor in the college. After studying law for a short time, he entered the Princeton Theological Seminary, from which he was graduated, and was then ordained a minister of the Presbyterian Church.

Mr. Condit served as pastor of churches in Minneapolis, St. Louis, and Peoria (Illinois), and in 1875 became principal of Coe Collegiate Institute, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. In 1881 the Coe Collegiate Institute developed into Coe College, and Mr. Condit was made professor of Latin and Greek, subsequently becoming professor of the Greek language and literature. For many years he served as dean of the college, and for a year as president *ad interim*.

Upon the completion of the academic year 1904-5, ill health compelled Dr. Condit to resign his chair, and, on September 28, 1906, the Carnegie Foundation, in view of the great value of his long services to education in Iowa, granted to him a retiring allowance. He died in Pasadena, California, in July, 1908.

EDWARD MILES BROWN

E www.libtool.com.cn **DWARD MILES BROWN** was born in Schoolcraft, Michigan, on July 21, 1854. He received his elementary education in the schools and academies of his native community, and was graduated from the University of Michigan with the degree of bachelor of arts in 1880.

For the nine years following his graduation he taught in secondary schools, and in 1889 he served in the faculty of Cornell University as acting assistant professor of English. During the following year he studied at the universities of Halle, Strassburg, and Berlin, and in 1891 received from the University of Berlin the degree of doctor of philosophy. Upon his return to the United States Dr. Brown was made professor of modern languages at the University of Cincinnati, and two years later was transferred to be professor of the English language and literature, and was made head of the department. He was general editor of the Anglo-Saxon texts in the Belles-Lettres Series.

Professor Brown's health having failed, the Foundation granted to him a disability allowance on June 7, 1907. He died in Ann Arbor, Michigan, on September 15, 1908.

EDWARD ALEXANDER MACDOWELL

E **DWARD ALEXANDER MACDOWELL** was born in New York City on December 18, 1861. As a boy he was far from the precocious genius type, even evincing the healthy lad's aversion to the drudgery of long practice on the piano, for which instrument, nevertheless, he exhibited an early fondness and talent. His mother, recognizing his ability, kept him, however, at the piano, and in 1876, when he was fourteen years old, took him to Paris to study music.

A year later he entered the *Conservatoire*, where he developed distinct musical ambition. Desiring, after a short time, to study in Germany, upon the advice of the violinist Samet, his mother took him to Wiesbaden. After studying during the summer with Louis Ehlert, who said that he could not "teach" him, young MacDowell went to Frankfort, where Raff was in charge of the conservatory and Clara Schumann and Heymann were among the piano teachers. In 1881, when Heymann left, he suggested that the young American be his successor, but his youth was considered a bar, and Mr. MacDowell became a piano instructor at the Darmstadt conservatory. He did not stay long at Darmstadt, owing to the strain of too long hours of teaching, but returned to Frankfort, having in the meantime composed nearly all of his second piano suite.

In Frankfort he had enough pupils to bring in a living, but devoted his best energies to composition. He had the satisfaction of playing in all the German cities near Frankfort, and in knowing that his compositions were beginning to be recognized.

Finally, upon Raff's advice, he went to Weimar to visit Liszt. He was well received. The great pianist was so much pleased with his playing that he asked him to perform his first piano suite at the convention of the *Allgemeiner Musikverein* in Zurich. The outcome of the occasion was the offer of a German publishing house to bring out the American's work.

In 1889 Mr. MacDowell returned to America, making his home in Boston and devoting much of his time to outdoor life. As a teacher of music he became known throughout the United States. His fame as a composer grew rapidly, and in 1896 the Boston Symphony Orchestra paid him the compliment, probably unprecedented, of placing two of his largest works upon the same program. Previously he had achieved his first triumph in New York, when, in the double rôle of composer and pianist, he had played his second concerto with the Philharmonic Society, in December, 1894.

In 1896 he was elected professor of music in Columbia University, occupying the chair which had been established with an endowment of \$150,000 from the Robert Center fund for instruction in music. For the next few years, as he himself said, he put all his energy and enthusiasm into the cause of art at Columbia, and he made his department, notwithstanding his dissatisfaction with the situation regarding the fine arts in American universities, a surprising success. Yet he was out of place where only a few students were sufficiently advanced to require the guidance of a man of genius, and in 1904 he resigned his chair. He had advocated the wisdom of allowing no student to enter the university without some knowledge of the fine arts. "Such knowledge may be very general, and not technical. This would force upon the preparatory school the admission of the fine arts to its curriculum. The present ignorance of the incoming student demands a remedy if the courses in the fine arts are to give anything but the most elementary instruction. No student should attain his B.A. degree without passing in at least two courses of a faculty of fine arts." Professor MacDowell had also proposed that a faculty of fine arts be established consisting of the courses in music given under the faculty of philosophy, the courses in architecture in the School of Mines, to which should be added Belles-Lettres courses, and the establishment of instruction in painting and sculpture.

Like many other modern composers (Chopin, Franz, Grieg, and others) MacDowell preferred the shorter form of composition to the more elaborate ones. Nevertheless, he wrote two concertos for the piano and four pianoforte sonatas, which are among his best works, being in point of inspiration far superior to anything else of the kind ever done in America. Of his orchestral works only one, *The Indian Suite*, belongs to the period when his genius had fully matured; there is much that is charming, however, in the others—*Lancelot and Elaine*, and *Hamlet and Ophelia*—as well as in his first suite. As a writer of songs and pianoforte pieces he ranks with the best European masters of the time. Especially notable are his collections of short pieces, — *Woodland Sketches*, *Sea Pieces*, *New England Idyls*; also his *Lieder* or lyric

songs for one voice, about fifty in all. A number of them are set to poems of his own. For several years MacDowell clubs have existed in Boston and in New York for the study of the composer's works.

Professor MacDowell returned to private teaching and composition with enthusiasm. One day a week he gave up to pupils who could not afford to pay for lessons. He composed with a vigor meant to atone for the recent years divorced from original work. But he allowed himself no time for rest, and as a result he was attacked by an affection of the brain and nervous system,—a slow disintegration of the cerebral substance, which physicians of eminence pronounced incurable. The Mendelssohn Glee Club of New York raised a fund for his assistance, and the Carnegie Foundation, in recognition of his genius as the foremost musician and writer of music the United States has produced, and of the honor which his work had brought to America, on September 28, 1906, granted a retiring allowance to Professor MacDowell.

Professor MacDowell died in New York City on January 23, 1908.

JAMES VENABLE LOGAN

JAMES VENABLE LOGAN was born in Scott County, Kentucky, on July 11, 1835; was educated at Centre College from which he received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1854, and at the Danville Theological Seminary from which he was graduated in 1860. From 1860 to 1868 he was pastor of the Presbyterian Church at Harrodsburg, Kentucky. In 1868 he became editor of the *Free Christian Commonwealth* of Louisville, Kentucky, now the *Christian Observer*. He was intimately associated with the organization of the Central University of Kentucky, and in 1876 became professor of philosophy in that institution. In 1880 he became president of the College of Arts and Sciences of the University, and continued in this office until the consolidation of the Central University with the Centre College of Kentucky in 1901. He then became professor of philosophy in the Centre College of the consolidated Central University of Kentucky, which position he held until July 1, 1908.

Upon the nomination of the trustees of Central University the Carnegie Foundation granted to Professor Logan a retiring allowance on May 5, 1908. He died in Minnesota on August 8, 1908.

THOMAS WALLACE WRIGHT

THOMAS WALLACE WRIGHT was born in 1842 in Galloway, Scotland. When he was twelve years old his parents removed to Galt, Canada, from which place he entered the University of Toronto, receiving the degree of bachelor of arts in 1863. For the next seven years he taught mathematics and physics at the Galt Collegiate Institute. He then entered the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale University, receiving

there the degree of bachelor of philosophy in 1872, and that of civil engineer in 1882. From 1872 to 1882 he was engaged in engineering work for the United States government, in connection with the North and Northwestern Lakes Survey. In 1883 he became instructor in engineering at Lehigh University, and was called from there in 1885 to the chair of applied mathematics and physics at Union College. In 1891 he received the degree of master of arts from the University of Toronto, and in the same year that of doctor of philosophy from Union. In 1898 he became professor of mathematics at Union, holding this chair until his retirement from active teaching in 1905.

Dr. Wright published in 1884 *A Treatise on the Adjustment of Observations, with Applications to Measures of Precision*; in 1890 *A Text-Book of Mechanics*; in 1896 *Elements of Mechanics*; and he also was the author of various papers on geodesy and mathematical physics.

Upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Union University, the Carnegie Foundation, on June 7, 1906, granted a retiring allowance to Dr. Wright. He died in Schenectady on September 13, 1908.

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REPORT OF THE TREASURER

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www.libtool.com.cn **REPORT OF THE TREASURER**

To the Chairman and Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

IN accordance with the provisions of Article IX of the By-laws, the chairman of the board of trustees designated Patterson, Teele & Dennis, certified public accountants, to audit the accounts of the Foundation for the last fiscal year. On October 1 the books of the treasurer were accordingly turned over to this firm, whose report follows:

We hereby certify that we have audited the accounts of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching for the year ending September 30, 1908, and that the Income upon the Investments has been duly accounted for, and that the expenditure has been duly authorized and vouched.

The original securities representing the Fund are carried at par value and the additional securities representing the investment of a portion of the income are carried at cost.

All the securities representing these investments have been produced to us.

The Cash in Bank has been verified with a certificate received from the bankers and the Cash on Hand by actual count.

PATTERSON, TEELE & DENNIS
Certified Public Accountants.

BALANCE SHEET, SEPTEMBER 30, 1908
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Assets

Investments, as per <i>Exhibit 1</i> , at Cost	\$10,762,958.98
Interest accrued on Investments to Sept. 30, 1908, as per <i>Exhibit 1</i>	175,097.52
Cash in bank and on hand	19,410.89
Office Furniture and Fittings, at Cost	4,611.71
Retiring Allowance paid in advance	100.00
<i>Total Assets</i>	\$10,962,178.55

Fund and Accumulations, &c.

Endowment Fund	\$10,000,000.00
Income and Expenditure Account:	
Accumulation to Sept. 30, 1907	\$717,974.59
Accumulation for year ending Sept. 30, 1908	243,233.48
<i>Total Accumulations to Sept. 30, 1908</i>	961,208.07
Reserve for Depreciation on Office Furniture and Fittings and Premium on Bonds	947.58
Sundry Creditors	17.90
<i>Total Fund and Accumulations, &c.</i>	\$10,962,178.55

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INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT
FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

Income

Income for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908, <i>Exhibit 1</i>	\$528,422.89
Interest on Bank Balance for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908	1,882.68
	<u>\$530,305.57</u>

Expenditure

RETIRING ALLOWANCES:

To Professors, Officers, and Widows in Accepted Institutions	\$161,129.95	
To Professors, Officers, and Widows not in Accepted Institutions	85,512.46	\$246,642.41

ADMINISTRATION EXPENSES:

Salaries	\$23,048.00	
Printing	4,929.12	
Office Rent	3,966.62	
Traveling Expenses	3,810.86	
Legal and Professional Fees	1,114.33	
Postage	980.50	
Removing and Alterations and Office Expenses, etc.	969.27	
Stationery and Office Supplies	856.54	
Telephone and Telegraph	228.39	39,898.63
Depreciation on Office Furniture and Fixtures, 10%		461.17
Reserve for Proportion of Premium on Bonds purchased		69.88
		<u>\$287,072.09</u>
<i>Total Expenditure for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908</i>		\$287,072.09
Accumulation for the year ending Sept. 30, 1908		<u>\$243,233.48</u>

STATEMENT OF SECURITIES HELD AND INCOME THEREON SEPTEMBER 30, 1908

Pur Value	Security	Date Acquired	Interest due Date	Cost of Security	Interest accrued at Oct. 1, 1907	Interest received during Year ending Sept. 30, 1908	Interest accrued at Sept. 30, 1908	Income for Year ending Sept. 30, 1908
\$3,350,000.00	U. S. Steel Corporation Series "B" Registered 50 Years 5% Gold Bonds. Due April, 1951	Dec. 1, 1905	Feb. 1 & Aug. 1	\$3,350,000.00	\$27,916.67	\$167,500.00	\$27,916.67	\$167,500.00
3,350,000.00	U. S. Steel Corporation Series "D" Registered 50 Years 5% Gold Bonds. Due April, 1951	Dec. 1, 1905	Apr. 1 & Oct. 1	3,350,000.00	88,750.00	167,500.00	88,750.00	167,500.00
3,300,000.00	U. S. Steel Corporation Series "F" Registered 50 Years 5% Gold Bonds. Due April, 1951	Dec. 1, 1905	June 1 & Dec. 1	3,300,000.00	55,000.00	165,000.00	55,000.00	165,000.00
50,000.00	Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. Southwestern Division First Mtge. 3½% Gold Coupon Bonds. Due July 1, 1935	June 9, 1906 (\$20,000.00) Dec. 6, 1906 (\$30,000.00)	Jan. 1 & July 1	45,550.00	437.50	1,750.00	437.50	1,750.00
50,000.00	Pennsylvania Co. 4% 15-25 Years Gold Coupon Loan 1906. Due April 1, 1931	June 9, 1906	Apr. 1 & Oct. 1	49,125.00	1,000.00	2,000.00	1,000.00	2,000.00
50,000.00	The Lake Shore & Michigan So. Ry. Co. 2½ Years 4% Gold Coupon Bonds. Due September 1, 1938	June 9, 1906	Mar. 1 & Sept. 1	49,125.00	166.67	2,000.00	166.67	2,000.00
50,000.00	Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R. Co. Illinois Division, First Mtge. 4% Bonds. Due July 1, 1949	Aug. 1, 1906	Jan. 1 & July 1	50,569.50	500.00	2,000.00	500.00	2,000.00
50,000.00	Southern Pacific R. R. Co. First Refunding Mtge. 4% Gold Bonds. Due January 1, 1955	Aug. 1, 1906 (\$20,000.00) Apr. 29, 1908 (\$30,000.00)	Jan. 1 & July 1	45,350.00	900.00	1,003.33	900.00	1,903.33
95,000.00	Oregon Short Line R. R. Co. 4% Refunding Gold Bonds. Due December 1, 1939	Oct. 3, 1906 (\$60,000.00) Dec. 12, 1907 (\$35,000.00)	June 1 & Dec. 1	85,578.98	800.00	3,053.98	1,966.67	3,590.65

35,000.00	Oregon Railroad & Navigation Co. 4% Consolidated Mte. Gold Bonds. Due June 1, 1946	Dec. 6, 1906 (\$30,000.00) April 30, 1908 (\$5,000.00)	June 1 & Dec. 1	34,681.80	400.00	1,917.99	466.67	1,963.89
60,000.00	New York Central & Hudson River R. R. Co. 5% Three Year Gold Coupon Notes. Due February 1, 1910	Feb. 2, 1907 (\$5,000.00)	Feb. 1 & Aug. 1	59,700.00	500.00	3,000.00	500.00	3,000.00
50,000.00	The City of New York Registered 3½% Corporate Stock for replenishing the Fund for Street and Park Openings. Due May 1, 1954.	Apr. 3, 1907	May 1 & Nov. 1	44,750.00	799.17	1,760.00	799.17	1,760.00
50,000.00	Pennsylvania R. R. Co. 5% Three Year Collateral Gold Notes. Due March 15, 1910	Apr. 3, 1907 (\$10,000.00) Aug. 7, 1907 (\$40,000.00)	Mar. 15 & Sept. 15	49,962.50	104.17	2,500.00	104.17	2,500.00
70,000.00	Northern Pacific, Great Northern, Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R. Co. Collateral Trust 4% Joint Bonds. Due July 1, 1931	July 2, 1907	Jan. 1 & July 1	64,711.52	700.00	2,800.00	700.00	2,800.00
90,000.00	Central R. R. Co. of New Jersey, General Mte. 5% Bonds. Due July 1, 1987	Aug. 7, 1907	Jan. 1 & July 1	94,500.00	250.00	1,000.00	250.00	1,000.00
100,000.00	Union Pacific R. R. Co. 90 Year 4% Convertible Gold Bonds. Due July 1, 1927	Oct. 11, 1907 (\$35,000.00) Feb. 7, 1908 (\$58,000.00) June 11, 1908 (\$7,000.00)	Jan. 1 & July 1	85,639.13	1,000.00	1,939.13	1,000.00	2,939.13
55,000.00	Chicago, Indiana & Southern R. R. Co. Consolidated Mte. 4% Bonds. Due January 1, 1956	July 10, 1908	Jan. 1 & July 1	49,912.50			*550.00	495.00
26,000.00	Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Ry. Co. Transcontinental Short Line First Mte. 4% Fifty Year Gold Bonds. Due July 1, 1958	Sept. 3, 1908	Jan. 1 & July 1	24,505.00			*260.00	80.89
\$10,811,000.00	<i>Total</i>			\$10,762,953.93	\$172,454.13	\$596,013.66	\$175,097.52	\$598,452.89

* Includes interest to date of purchase.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER

The treasurer has submitted at each meeting of the executive committee statements of receipts and expenditures which were printed and sent to all trustees. These statements, together with the report of the auditing firm just quoted, give a complete account of the financial operations of the Foundation for the period covered by this report.

THOMAS MORRISON CARNEGIE

October 18, 1908.

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**THE CARNEGIE FOUNDATION
FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING**

**FOURTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
PRESIDENT AND OF THE TREASURER**

**576 FIFTH AVENUE
NEW YORK CITY
October, 1909**
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REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT
PART I
CURRENT BUSINESS OF THE YEAR

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REPORT OF THE PRESIDENT

To the Vice-Chairman and the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

IN accordance with the provisions of the by-laws, I have the honor to present herewith the Fourth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation, covering the administration of the trust for the fiscal year beginning October 1, 1908, and terminating September 30, 1909.

ELECTION OF TRUSTEES

It will become the duty of the board at the coming annual meeting to fill two vacant trusteeships.¹ At the annual meeting in 1908 the Reverend Edwin Holt Hughes presented his resignation as a trustee, which was accepted by the board with a vote of appreciation for his services. Mr. Hughes had resigned the presidency of De Pauw University upon his election as a bishop of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and having thus withdrawn from active educational work, felt it incumbent upon him to retire from the board.

At the meeting of the executive committee on June 4, 1909, the president presented the following letter from Mr. Charles W. Eliot:

"I herewith resign my position as a trustee of the Carnegie Foundation, since I have ceased to be President of Harvard University and have become a pensioner of the Foundation. It has been a satisfaction for me to serve on the board from the creation of the trust until this date, and I was pleased to have Mr. Carnegie express a desire some months ago that I should continue to serve as a member of the board of trustees. Nevertheless, it seems to me so clear that the board should be made up exclusively of men in active service that I hope my resignation will be promptly accepted."

President Eliot has been since the inauguration of the Foundation chairman of the board of trustees. His coöperation in the work of the board has been of the greatest value in these first years. To the executive officers and to the trustees his retirement is a source of regret, notwithstanding the fact that they recognize the sound policy embodied in the principle enunciated in his letter of resignation. They still count upon his advice and his coöperation, though he is no longer formally a member of the board of trustees. He carries into his unofficial life not only the respect, but the affectionate regard of all who have to do with higher education in America.

THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE

THE executive committee held seven meetings during the fiscal year 1908-09. The minutes of these meetings were printed as promptly as possible and transmitted to

¹To fill these places Charles Richard Van Hise and Ira Remsen were elected at the annual meeting on November 17, 1909.

the trustees. To the minutes are appended the printed statements of the receipts and expenditures of the Foundation in detail.

Elsewhere in this report is presented a list of the retiring allowances and pensions voted by the executive committee and an account of the institutions admitted by the committee to a participation in the privileges of the Foundation. There are also given in full the names of the tax-supported institutions on behalf of which their respective state legislatures requested admission to the Foundation, and the reasons which led the committee to postpone certain of these applications at the present time.

In addition to the proceedings taken in these matters, the executive committee conferred during the year with two deputations, one composed of the presidents of a number of colleges which are associated in legal ties with religious organizations, the other consisting of representatives from the governing board of a college upon the accepted list.

The former group of gentlemen were introduced to the committee by President Louis E. Holden of the University of Wooster¹ (Presbyterian Church in the United States of America), and consisted of President Emory W. Hunt of Denison University² (Baptist Churches of the Northern Convention); Professor Rufus M. Jones of Haverford College³ (Religious Society of Friends); President William F. Peirce of Kenyon College⁴ (Protestant Episcopal Church); President Herbert Welch of Ohio Wesleyan University⁵ (Methodist Episcopal Church); President Willis E. Parsons of Parsons College⁶ (Presbyterian Church in the United States of America); President Charles E. Miller of Heidelberg University⁷ (Reformed Church in the United States); President Thomas H. McMichael of Monmouth College⁸ (United Presby-

¹The board of trustees of the University of Wooster is elected by the Synod of Ohio of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America. Three fourths of the board of trustees must be communicant members of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America.

²The board of trustees of Denison University must "be chosen exclusively from members in good standing, and full fellowship, in regular Baptist churches in the State of Ohio, who shall hold their office only so long as they retain such membership."

³By a by-law of the corporation of Haverford College, members of the corporation must be members of the Society of Friends.

⁴The present government of Kenyon College is an unusually intricate one. A committee of seven members of the board of trustees has reported a proposed charter by which the college will be governed by a board of trustees consisting of not less than twenty and not more than twenty-six members, six trustees to be elected by the alumni, and the remainder by the board itself, except that the Bishop of Ohio and the Bishop of Southern Ohio shall be *ex officio* trustees and alternate annually in the presidency of the board.

⁵The board of trustees of the Ohio Wesleyan University consists of thirty-six members, twenty-five of whom are elected by the Ohio, North Ohio, Cincinnati, Central Ohio, and West Virginia Conferences of the Methodist Episcopal Church, five by each conference.

⁶A majority of the members of the board of trustees of Parsons College and the president of the college must be members of the Presbyterian Church.

⁷The board of trustees of Heidelberg University is elected by the Ohio Synod of the Reformed Church in the United States.

⁸Monmouth College is governed by a senate, consisting of a board of trustees and a board of directors. The members of the board of trustees are elected by the senate itself. Of the twenty-seven members of the board of directors, twenty-four are elected by certain governing bodies of the United Presbyterian Church, namely, nine by the Second Synod, nine by the Synod of Illinois, three by the Synod of Nebraska, and one each by the Presbyteries of Keokuk, Cedar Rapids and Le Claire.

terian Church); President Charles G. Hechert of Wittenberg College¹ (Lutheran Church, General Synod); President S. G. Hefelbower of Pennsylvania College² (Lutheran Church, General Synod); President John S. Nollen of Lake Forest College³ (Presbyterian Church in the United States of America); President Frederick William Boatwright of Richmond College⁴ (Baptist Churches of the Southern Convention); and President William H. P. Faunce of Brown University⁵ (Baptist Churches of the Northern Convention). These gentlemen presented to the executive committee the following memorial:

MEMORIAL TO THE PRESIDENT AND EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE
CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING
ON BEHALF OF CERTAIN COLLEGES HITHERTO EXCLUDED
FROM THE BENEFITS OF THE FOUNDATION

IN the letter announcing his munificent Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Mr. Andrew Carnegie excluded from the benefits of the Foundation such colleges "as are under the control of a sect, or require trustees (or a majority thereof), officers, faculty, or students, to belong to any specified sect, or which impose any theological test." The principle involved in this declaration we heartily approve. The spirit of sectarianism we recognize to be essentially incompatible with the ideals of a liberal education. The evident purpose of the donor was to exclude only institutions that are now sectarian in spirit and teaching, since he recognized clearly that many institutions "established long ago were truly sectarian, but to-day are free to all men of all creeds, or of none," and stated that such are "not to be considered sectarian now."

The valuable investigations instituted by the Foundation have revealed the fact that many institutions are excluded from the benefits of the Foundation solely because of charter provisions regulating the choice of trustees. We are convinced that these institutions, notwithstanding such provisions with regard to the choice of trustees, are in no true sense sectarian. The sectarian spirit against which Mr. Carnegie wished to guard we conceive to be that which limits academic freedom, by imposing a denominational test in the selection of teachers or by warping administrative policy.

The great benefits conferred by admission to the accepted list of the Foundation work a corresponding hardship to institutions not so admitted. The only way of escape from this disadvantage and of gaining the benefits of the Foundation has hitherto been a change of charter. In some cases there has been, and

¹The board of trustees of Wittenberg College consists of forty-two members, of whom thirty-eight are elected by synods of the Lutheran Church which is governed by the General Synod. The East Ohio, Miami, Wittenberg, and Northern Indiana Synods each elect eight trustees, and the Olive Branch Synod six trustees.

²Three fourths of the board of trustees of Pennsylvania College "shall always be members of the Lutheran Church."

³The election of members of the board of trustees of Lake Forest College must be approved by the Synod of Illinois of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America.

⁴The Education Board of the Baptist General Association of Virginia has the right to propose ten nominees for each vacancy on the board of trustees of Richmond College, the board to elect a trustee from among these nominees.

⁵Brown University is governed by a board of fellows and a board of trustees. Eight of the twelve fellows "shall be forever elected of the denomination called Baptists." The board of trustees consists of thirty-six members, twenty-two of whom must be Baptists, four must be Congregationalists, and five each must belong to the Society of Friends and to the Episcopal Church.

could be, no valid objection to such a change of charter. In other cases, however, there are weighty reasons against such action, which are in no sense sectarian. Among these are the following:

1. The severance of the historic relation between the college and the religious body that founded and nurtured it is, in some instances, open to serious ethical objection.

2. The severance of this relation would inevitably be misconstrued by many of the alumni and patrons of these colleges as a sacrifice of principle for monetary gain. Controversy would thus be provoked and the college constituency weakened.

3. The formal relation between the college and the denomination makes it easy to arouse the interest and enlist the support of a constituency which would otherwise be lost to the cause of education. The severance of the relation would sacrifice this advantage.

We therefore believe that such changes of charter would often result in serious injury to the college concerned and to the cause of education in general.

We further urge that these colleges are not now maintained for sectarian ends, but represent the contribution of the denominations to the general educational work of the country.

In view of these considerations we respectfully petition the President and the Executive Committee of the Foundation to present these facts to Mr. Carnegie, with their recommendation that he make provision by which the benefits of the Foundation may be extended to those institutions—

1. Which meet the academic and financial standards of the Foundation.

2. Whose property is not specifically held for a denomination by an ecclesiastical officer or a religious order.

3. Which do not prescribe denominational tests for administrative officers, faculty, or students, and

4. Which do not require the teaching of denominational tenets.

We believe that in any case technical provisions in historic charters that are found to be in actual practice not a bar to complete liberty and autonomy should not operate to exclude institutions from the benefits of the Foundation.

One of the most important results of the activity of the Carnegie Foundation has been to influence colleges to raise their scholastic standards and strengthen their resources. It is obvious that favorable action upon our petition would greatly extend this influence, so beneficial to the cause of higher education.

After the presentation of this memorial, some time was spent in a conference between the members of the executive committee and the college presidents in regard to the administration of the Carnegie Foundation with respect to colleges under the control of religious organizations. Upon the withdrawal of the deputation the committee authorized the president of the Foundation to forward a copy of the memorial to Mr. Carnegie, with the opinion of the committee that it did not feel justified in recommending the removal from the endowment intrusted to the trustees of the restrictions concerning institutions which are organized in legal dependence upon religious bodies. At a subsequent meeting the president presented to the committee a note from Mr. Carnegie, through his secretary, expressing

agreement with the attitude of the committee. The college presidents whose signatures were attached to the memorial were informed of this action.

A conference was held with a committee of three members from the board of trustees of Randolph-Macon College, appointed to discuss with the executive committee the relations of the Carnegie Foundation and the Randolph-Macon Woman's College. The executive committee explained to the visiting trustees the meaning which the Foundation attached to the resolution passed by the board of trustees of the Randolph-Macon College, stating that thereafter no denominational tests would be applied in the election of trustees. This resolution the Foundation understands to mean just what its words express, that in the election of trustees the question of the prospective trustees' denominational affiliation or belief will not be considered. The executive committee, therefore, indicated its judgment that the Randolph-Macon board of trustees should adopt one of two courses,—make clear to the conferences the board's independence in choosing trustees, or acquiesce frankly in a choice of trustees under supervision of the conferences. As to which of these positions the Randolph-Macon board should adopt the executive committee had, of course, no opinion. That was a matter wholly belonging to the board of trustees of Randolph-Macon College, who are also the trustees of Randolph-Macon Woman's College.

The executive committee considered during the year several applications for admission from institutions legally connected with religious organizations. One of these was from Lake Forest College. The board of trustees of this college must submit the names of all newly elected trustees to the Presbyterian Synod of Illinois for confirmation. The same charter which formulates this government for the college also releases the college from all burden of taxation by the state. The trustees, therefore, do not consider it wise to submit the charter to the legislature of Illinois for revision in any particular, and they suggested that the Foundation accept, in lieu of the elision from the charter of the right of confirmation by the synod, a waiver by the synod of its exercise of this power. The executive committee felt that it could not admit Lake Forest College to the Foundation upon this extra-legal basis, particularly as, in view of the legislative and representative character possessed by a Presbyterian synod, it is doubtful if a waiver executed by one session of a synod would be legally binding upon future sessions.

The executive committee has felt constrained to hold that the words in the charter of the Foundation prohibiting the trustees from granting retiring allowances "in institutions under the control of a sect" apply to a college or university a majority of whose governing board is elected by a representative council of a religious organization. A somewhat unusual case arose in the application of the University of Denver. The trustees of that institution are elected by the Colorado Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, but the charter contains a declaration that "no test of religious faith shall ever be applied as a condition of admission" into the institution. In view of this charter declaration the chancellor of the University

of Denver urged the executive committee to reopen the question and to admit that institution to the privileges of the Foundation. The committee considered the application, and again came to the decision that when the majority of a college's governing board is designated by a denomination, through a power of election residing in one of its constituent councils, the college is, in the language of the Foundation's charter, "under the control" of the denomination, although the utmost freedom may be exercised at present in the election of college trustees. The potential control in favor of the denomination remains.

The committee also gave consideration, upon the request of a trustee of Wesleyan University, to the case of the colleges a majority of whose trustees are elected by the trustees themselves or the alumni, but with a minority selected by a religious body. The committee, while recognizing that colleges so governed come within the discretion of the Foundation as permitted by the charter, felt that the time had not yet arrived when institutions thus situated should be admitted.

A petition was presented to the committee on behalf of the Council of the Archaeological Institute of America, asking that the schools of the Institute be placed upon the accepted list, or at least that teachers going from accepted institutions to these schools may count years of service in them as if the schools had been accepted. The committee voted that directors and professors serving in the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, in the American School of Classical Studies at Rome, in the American School for Oriental Study and Research in Palestine, and in the School of American Archaeology, who have gone from accepted institutions in which they were eligible to the benefits of the Foundation, may count years of service in these schools as years spent in the accepted institutions.

The committee also considered a communication from the president of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, referring to the wording of the resolution adopted by the committee on December 19, 1907, whereby the privileges of the Foundation are extended to those scientists engaged in the work of research under the Carnegie Institution of Washington who have gone to that work from a professorship in a college or university. President Woodward inquired whether the resolution could be so amended as to make the privileges of the Foundation equally applicable to those who, beginning their professional career in the work of research under the Institution, afterwards accept a professorship in a college or university. The executive committee, however, felt that the primary object of the Carnegie Foundation is the promotion of teaching, and it declined to extend the benefits of the retiring allowance system to the Carnegie Institution beyond the limits expressed in the resolution of December 17, 1907.

There was also laid before the committee the inquiry of a professor in an accepted institution, requesting to be informed whether a professor who was eligible to receive a retiring allowance could assume the duties of a teacher in a secondary school and continue to receive his allowance, or in case that were not permitted by the rules of

the Foundation, whether it would be permissible for a professor entitled to an allowance to teach in a secondary school and at the end of such teaching to claim the allowance he had previously earned by the years of service in a college professorship. The committee authorized the president to reply that a professor could not receive an allowance while engaging in teaching in any educational institution of whatever grade, but that a professor having become entitled to a retiring allowance need not claim it when he retired from his professorship, but might do so at a subsequent period.

RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

OCTOBER 1, 1908 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Retirement</i>
CARLETON COLLEGE	WILLIAM W. PAYNE, PH.D.	Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy	Oct., 1908
COE COLLEGE	ALICE KING, M.A.	Professor of History and English	July, 1909
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	EDWARD T. BOAG	Registrar of the Medical School	July, 1909*
	JOHN G. CURTIS, A.M., M.D., LL.D.	Professor of Physiology	July, 1909
	ALEXIS ANASTAY JULIEN, PH.D.	Curator in Geology	July, 1909
	C. ALEXANDER NELSON	Head Reference Librarian	July, 1909
	T. MITCHELL PRUDDEN, M.D., LL.D.	Professor of Pathology	July, 1909
	MARGARET VAN ZANDT	Supervisor, Order Department of the University Library	July, 1909
	JAMES S. C. WELLS, PH.D.	Adjunct Professor of Analytical Chemistry	July, 1909
CORNELL UNIVERSITY	THOMAS FREDERICK CRANE, A.M., LITT.D.	Dean of the University Faculty and Professor of the Romance Languages and Literatures	June, 1909
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA	DAVID A. OWEN, A.M.	Professor of Biology	Sept., 1909
	BARNETT WALLACE	Treasurer	July, 1909
†GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY	JAMES HOWARD GORE, PH.D.	Professor of Mathematics	Sept., 1909
	JAMES MCBRIDE STERRETT, A.M., D.D.	Professor of Philosophy	Sept., 1909
HARVARD UNIVERSITY	CHARLES WILLIAM ELIOT, A.M., M.D., LL.D.	President	May, 1909
	CHARLES HERBERT MOORE, A.M.	Professor of Art and Director of the William Hayes Fogg Art Museum	Sept., 1909
	FREDERIC WARD PUTNAM, SC.D.	Professor of Anthropology	Sept., 1909
	CRAWFORD HOWELL TOY, A.M., LL.D.	Professor of Hebrew and other Oriental Languages	Sept., 1909
	JOHN WILLIAMS WHITE, PH.D., LL.D., LITT.D.	Professor of Greek	Sept., 1909
HOBART COLLEGE	CHARLES DELAMATER VAIL, L.H.D.	Librarian	July, 1909
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY	NICHOLAS MURRAY	Librarian	Jan., 1909
MCGILL UNIVERSITY	JOHN COX, M.A., LL.D.	Professor of Physics	Sept., 1909
MASS. INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	THEODORE B. MERRICK	Instructor in Woodwork and Foundry-Work	Oct., 1909
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN	HENRY SMITH CARHART, A.M., LL.D.	Professor of Physics	Oct., 1909
	VOLNEY MORGAN SPALDING, PH.D.	Professor of Botany	
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA	JAMES BROOKS, M.A.	Professor of Greek	July, 1909
	MARIA L. SANFORD	Professor of Rhetoric and Elocution	July, 1909
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI	ANDREW W. MCALESTER, M.D., LL.D.	Dean of School of Medicine and Professor of Surgery	July, 1909
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY	JOHN J. STEVENSON, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Geology	Feb., 1909
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA	JAMES TRUMAN, D.D.S., LL.D.	Professor of Dental Pathology, Therapeutics, and Materia Medica	July, 1909
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH	COLBERT MONSEAU DES ISLETS, PH.D.	Professor of Latin and French	July, 1909
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY	CHARLES GREENE ROCKWOOD, JR., PH.D.	Professor of Mathematics	Oct., 1909
‡RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE	RICHARD H. SHARP, JR., M.A.	Professor of Latin and Greek	June, 1909
SMITH COLLEGE	EMILY HITCHCOCK TERRY	Lady-in-Charge of Hubbard House	July, 1909
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	THOMAS B. STILLMAN, M.SC., PH.D.	Professor of Engineering Chemistry	Oct., 1909
SWARTHMORE COLLEGE	WILLIAM HYDE APPLETON, A.M., PH.D.	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature	June, 1909
	ELIZABETH POWELL BOND, A.M.	Dean	Apr., 1909
	SURAN J. CUNNINGHAM, SC.D.	Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy	Apr., 1909
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA	GARVIN DUGAS SHANDS, LL.D.	Professor of Common Law	Oct., 1909
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY	HALSEY C. IVES, LL.D.	Director of the Museum of Fine Arts	
WELLS COLLEGE	MARY EMILY CASE, M.A.	Professor of Latin	July, 1909
WILLIAMS COLLEGE	JOHN HASKELL HEWITT, LL.D.	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature	July, 1909
	EVEN BURT PARSONS, D.D.	Secretary of the Faculty and Registrar	July, 1909
	LEVERETT WILSON SPRING, D.D.	Professor of Rhetoric	July, 1909

* Deceased.

† Ceased to be on accepted list, June 4, 1909.

‡ Ceased to be on accepted list, September 30, 1909.

RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

OCTOBER 1, 1908 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

[CONTINUED]

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<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Retirement</i>
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN	WILLIAM WILLARD DANIELLS, SC.D.	Professor of Chemistry	July, 1909
	WILLIAM ARNON HENRY, D.AGR., D.SC.	Professor of Agriculture	July, 1909
	ALEXANDER KERR, M.A.	Professor of the Greek Language and Literature	July, 1909
	FLETCHER ANDREW PARKER	Professor of Music	July, 1909
	JOHN BARBER PARKINSON, M.A.	Professor of Constitutional and International Law	July, 1909
YALE UNIVERSITY	BERNADOTTE PERRIN, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Greek Literature and History	July, 1909
	CHARLES BRINCKERHOFF RICHARDS, M.A.	Professor of Mechanical Engineering	July, 1909
	WILLIAM GRAHAM SUMNER, LL.D.	Professor of Political and Social Science	July, 1909
	HENRY PARKS WRIGHT, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Latin, and Dean	July, 1909

DISABILITY ALLOWANCES

GRANTED FOR LIMITED PERIOD

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
BATES COLLEGE	WILLIAM H. HARTSHORN, A.M., LITT.D. ..	Professor of English Literature	Sept., 1909
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI	M. ELIZABETH J. CZARNOMSKA, A.M.	Dean of Women and Lecturer on English and Biblical Literature	Jan., 1909
CLARK UNIVERSITY	FREDERICK A. BUSHEE, PH.D.	Professor of Economics and Sociology	Oct., 1908
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	FRANCIS BACON CROCKER, E.E., PH.D.	Professor of Electrical Engineering	Apr., 1909
KNOX COLLEGE	MARY C. HURD	Instructor in French	Jan., 1909
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA	HENRY ROHR LAWRENCE	Assistant Treasurer	Mar., 1909
SMITH COLLEGE	JOHN EVERETT BRADY, PH.D.	Professor of Latin	Jan., 1909
	MARY A. SCOTT, PH.D.	Professor of English	Sept., 1909

WIDOWS

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Husband's Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY	MRS. JAMES VENABLE LOGAN	Professor of Philosophy	Oct., 1908
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI	MRS. EDWARD MILES BROWN	Professor of the English Language and Literature	Oct., 1908
	MRS. ROBERT A. CONDIT	Professor of Greek	Nov., 1908
COE COLLEGE	MRS. GEORGE N. MARDEN	Professor of History	Jan., 1909
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	MRS. JAMES HULME CANFIELD	Librarian	Apr., 1909
HARVARD UNIVERSITY	MRS. JOHN HENRY WRIGHT	Dean of the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences	Nov., 1908
	MRS. PAUL R. B. DE PONT	Assistant Professor of French	June, 1909
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN	MRS. ALBERT WEST PATTENGILL	Professor of Greek	June, 1909
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE OF BROOKLYN	MRS. CHARLES AMI LADOR	Professor of the French Language and Literature	Sept., 1909
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE	MRS. THOMAS GRAY	Professor of Dynamic and Electrical Engineering	Jan., 1909
SMITH COLLEGE	MRS. EDWIN BRUCE STOREY	Professor of Music	Sept., 1909
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA	MRS. J. HANNO DEILER	Professor of the German Language and Literature	Sept., 1909
UNION COLLEGE	MRS. THOMAS WALLACE WRIGHT	Professor of Mathematics	Oct., 1908

RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED TO PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS

OCTOBER 1, 1908 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

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<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Retirement</i>
UNIV. OF CALIFORNIA, Berkeley, Cal.	CORNELIUS BRACH BRADLEY, M.A.....	Professor of Rhetoric.....	July, 1910
	ISAAC FLAGG, PH.D.....	Associate Professor of Greek.....	Oct., 1909
	GEORGE H. HOWISON, M.A., LL.D.....	Professor of Intellectual and Moral Philosophy and Civil Polity.....	July, 1909
	ROBERT HILLS LOUGHRIDGE, PH.D.....	Associate Professor of Agricultural Chemistry and Geology.....	Oct., 1909
	WILLARD B. RISING, M.E., PH.D.....	Professor of Chemistry.....	July, 1909
	FRANK SOULÉ.....	Professor of Civil Engineering.....	Oct., 1909
UNIV. OF COLORADO, Boulder, Col.....	MARY RIFFON.....	Professor of German.....	July, 1909
FISK UNIVERSITY, Nashville, Tenn.....	ALFRED E. WHITAKER, M.A.....	Librarian.....	Sept., 1909
	ANNA T. BALLANTINE.....	Lady Principal.....	Feb., 1909
UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA, Athens, Ga.	SARAH A. FRIERSON.....	Assistant Librarian.....	Nov., 1909
	MARIAN H. KILBOURNE.....	Dean of Women.....	Sept., 1909
IOWA STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND MECHANIC ARTS, Ames, Ia.	HENRY CADWALADER CHAPMAN.....	Professor of Physiology.....	May, 1909*
JEFFERSON MEDICAL SCHOOL, Philadelphia, Pa.	JAMES K. PATTERSON, PH.D., LL.D.....	President.....	July, 1909
STATE UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY, Lexington, Ky.....	LUETTE P. BENTLEY.....	Dean.....	July, 1909
LAKE ERIE COLLEGE, Painesville, O...	MARY EVANS, A.M., LITT.D.....	President.....	July, 1909
UNIVERSITY OF MAINE, Orono, Me.....	MERRITT CALDWELL FERNALD, PH.D., LL.D.	Professor of Philosophy.....	Oct., 1909
MILLS COLLEGE, Alameda County, California.....	SURAN LINCOLN MILLS, LITT.D.....	President.....	Aug., 1909
UNIV. OF MISSISSIPPI, University, Miss.	RICHARD MARION LEAVELL, M.A., LL.D.	Professor of Philosophy and Political Economy.....	Oct., 1909
UNIV. OF MONTANA, Missoula, Mont...	OSCAR J. CRAIG, PH.D.....	President.....	June, 1909
UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA, Chapel Hill, N. C.....	EVEN ALEXANDER, PH.D., LL.D.....	Professor of Greek, and Dean.....	Aug., 1909
	WYLIE THOMAS PATTERSON.....	Bursar.....	Aug., 1909
STATE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH DAKOTA, Grand Forks, N. D.....	JOHN MACNIE, M.A.....	Professor of the French and Spanish Languages.....	June, 1909
OHIO UNIVERSITY, Athens, Ohio.....	CHARLES H. SUPER, PH.D., LL.D.....	Professor of Greek.....	June, 1909
PRINCE OF WALES COLLEGE, Prince Edward Island.....	ALEXANDER ANDERSON.....	Professor of Mathematics, and Principal	
ROLLINS COLLEGE, Winter Park, Fla.	THOMAS RAKESTRAW BAKER, PH.D.....	Professor of Natural Science.....	June, 1909
SCHOOL OF MINING, Kingston, Ont. ...	SURAN A. LONGWELL, A.M.....	Professor of English.....	June, 1909
	NATHAN FELLOWES DUPUIS, M.A., F.R.S., F.R.S.C.....	Dean of the Faculty.....	
SOUTHERN EDUCATION BOARD.....	EDGAR GARDNER MURPHY.....	Secretary.....	Nov., 1908
TRANSYLVANIA UNIV., Lexington, Ky.	CHARLES LOUIS LOOS, A.M., LL.D.....	Professor of Greek.....	June, 1909
UNIV. OF VIRGINIA, Charlottesville, Va.	JAMES ALBERT HARRISON, L.H.D., LL.D...	Professor of the Teutonic Languages ...	June, 1909
WESLEYAN UNIV., Middletown, Conn.	BRADFORD P. RAYMOND, D.D., LL.D.....	President.....	July, 1909
WEST VIRGINIA UNIVERSITY, Morgantown, W. Va.	ST. GEORGE TUCKER BROOKE, LL.D.....	Professor of Law.....	July, 1909
	ROBERT WILLIAM DOUTHAT, A.M., PH.D.	Professor of the Latin Language and Literature.....	July, 1909

* Deceased.

DISABILITY ALLOWANCES

GRANTED FOR LIMITED PERIOD

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Academic Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
UNIVERSITY OF COLORADO	FRED B. R. HELLEMS, PH.D.	Dean of the College of Liberal Arts and Professor of Latin	June, 1909
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA	ISAAC A. LOOS, LL.D.	Professor of Political Economy and Sociology	June, 1909
	SAM B. SLOAN	Assistant Professor of English	June, 1909
UNIVERSITY OF MADRE	ALFRED BELLAMY AUBERT, M.S.	Professor of Chemistry	Sept., 1909

WIDOWS

<i>Institution</i>	<i>Name</i>	<i>Husband's Title</i>	<i>Date of Granting Allowance</i>
STATE UNIV. OF IOWA, Iowa City, Ia.	MRS. AMOS NOYES CURRIER	Professor of Latin and Greek	June, 1909
UNIV. OF KANSAS, Lawrence, Kan.	MRS. FRANCIS HUNTINGTON SNOW	Professor of Organic Evolution, Systematic Entomology and Meteorology	June, 1909
OLIVET COLLEGE, Olivet, Mich.	MRS. WALTER E. C. WRIGHT	Professor of Social Science and Christian Ethics	Oct., 1908

SUMMARY OF DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES GRANTED DURING THE FISCAL YEAR

OCTOBER 1, 1908 TO SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

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BENEFICIARIES	Number of Retiring Allowances granted				Average Age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Number Deceased during the Year	Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT FOR THE YEAR	
	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability	Total number of allowances granted	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability		Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability		
PROGRAMS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	99	95	8	69	69.1	64.6	66.1	98.7	34.8	16.4	5	\$1660 17	\$1869 60	\$1660 63	\$106,930	
PROGRAMS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS ...	18	15	4	37	68.7	65.3	64.3	99.9	33.9	19.0	9	\$1141 11	\$9033 33	\$1975 00	\$66,140	
WIDOWS OF PROGRAMS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				13									\$900 00		\$11,700	
WIDOWS OF PROGRAMS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				3									\$740 00		\$9,990	
TOTAL FOR THE YEAR	47	40	19	115											\$176,860	
															GENERAL AVERAGE OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES	\$1,636 17

DATA CONCERNING RETIRING ALLOWANCES IN FORCE

SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

	Number of Retiring Allowances in Force			Average age at Date of Retirement			Average Length of Service			Amount of Average Allowance			TOTAL GRANT IN FORCE SEPT. 30 1909	
	On basis of age	On basis of service	On basis of disability	Total number of allowances in force	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service	Of those retiring on basis of disability	Of those retiring on basis of age	Of those retiring on basis of service		Of those retiring on basis of disability
BENEFICIARIES														
PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	98	70	16	173	69.7	64.7	49.1	30.6	33.9	16.6	\$1634 98	\$1775 64	\$1796 33	\$265,910
PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS	45	47	8	100	69.8	69.0	49.3	30.9	38.3	22.4	\$1179 92	\$1695 74	\$1385 00	\$148,365
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				32								\$899 92		\$98,775
WIDOWS OF PROFESSORS NOT IN ACCEPTED INSTITUTIONS				13								\$690 00		\$8,970
TOTAL, SEPTEMBER 30, 1909	133	117	24	316										\$466,380
														GENERAL AVERAGE OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES \$1466 43

GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES

STATE, TERRITORY, OR PROVINCE	Number of allowances granted			Number of benefi- ciaries deceased	Number of tempo- rary al- lowances discontin- ued	Number of allow- ances in force
	<i>In institutions on the accepted list</i>	<i>In institutions not on the accepted list</i>	<i>Total number of allowances granted</i>			
NORTH ATLANTIC DIVISION						
MAINE	6	3	9	1		8
NEW HAMPSHIRE	2		2			2
VERMONT	2		2			2
MASSACHUSETTS	41	1	42	4		38
RHODE ISLAND		1	1			1
CONNECTICUT	18	3	21	1		20
NEW YORK	50	6	56	10		46
NEW JERSEY	12		12	1		11
PENNSYLVANIA	15	3	18	4	1	18
<i>Total</i>			168			
SOUTH ATLANTIC DIVISION						
MARYLAND	2		2			2
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA	2	4	6	1		5
VIRGINIA	2	9	11	2		9
WEST VIRGINIA		4	4			4
NORTH CAROLINA		5	5			5
SOUTH CAROLINA		6	6	1		5
GEORGIA		3	3			3
FLORIDA		3	3			3
<i>Total</i>			40			
SOUTH CENTRAL DIVISION						
KENTUCKY	4	4	8	1		7
TENNESSEE		6	6			6
ALABAMA		4	4			4
MISSISSIPPI		1	1			1
LOUISIANA	10		10	1		9
<i>Total</i>			29			
NORTH CENTRAL DIVISION						
OHIO	11	12	23	2		21
INDIANA	4	4	8	1		7
ILLINOIS	2	3	5	1		4
MICHIGAN	4	4	8	1		7
WISCONSIN	10		10			10
MINNESOTA	7	1	8			8
IOWA	3	12	15	3	1	11
MISSOURI	6	4	10			10
NORTH DAKOTA		3	3	1		2
NEBRASKA		1	1			1
KANSAS		1	1			1
<i>Total</i>			92			
WESTERN DIVISION						
MONTANA		1	1			1
COLORADO	2	3	5			5
CALIFORNIA	3	8	11	1	1	9
OREGON		2	2			2
<i>Total</i>			19			
THE DOMINION OF CANADA						
ONTARIO		1	1			1
QUEBEC	3		3			3
NOVA SCOTIA	1		1			1
NEW BRUNSWICK		3	3	1		2
PRINCE EDWARD ISLAND		1	1			1
<i>Total</i>			9			
NEWFOUNDLAND						
		2	2			2
<i>Total</i>			2			
Grand Total	222	137	359	36	3	318

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**INSTITUTIONS ADMITTED TO THE ACCEPTED LIST
DURING THE PAST YEAR**

COE COLLEGE

IN one of the years immediately following the middle of the nineteenth century the annual meeting of the Presbyterian General Assembly was held in New York. From Iowa the synod sent as a commissioner a pioneer pastor, the Reverend Williston Jones, of Cedar Rapids. The journey from beyond the Mississippi to New York was a costly one in those days for the slender resources of the western congregations, but Mr. Jones hoped that in the Assembly he might find some who would be interested in forwarding the movement for education in the west.

This hope seems to have been realized only through the interest of an elder from a little hamlet in the Catskill Mountains. Daniel Coe expressed his desire to help Mr. Jones's undertaking, and placed in his hands \$1500, a large sum for a man whose business depended on a small mountain community. With this money Mr. Jones took his return journey of eleven hundred miles.

This was the period in America when it was considered feasible to support great educational enterprises by the labor of the students themselves. Fifteen years later the University of Illinois began its career as the Illinois Industrial University, with a farm upon which boys might with their hands earn their education. While such ideas were held by prominent educators, it is not surprising that Mr. Jones and Mr. Coe should have believed in them, and consequently we find that under their agreement in New York, \$500 of Mr. Coe's donation was used in the purchase of a college site in Cedar Rapids, while the rest of the \$1500 bought a farm of eighty acres in the suburbs, where the students could pay their expenses by cultivating the land. A few years were sufficient, as was later the case with the larger experiment in Illinois, to prove the failure of this plan. The farm was abandoned as a means of student support. But the trustees retained the land, and many years later the establishment of Coe College was due to the hundred-fold increase in value of the property.

The years intervening between 1853 and the incorporation of the college in 1881 were years of struggle and uncertainty. The original establishment organized by Williston Jones had been called the Cedar Rapids Collegiate Institute, and to it the citizens of Cedar Rapids had contributed a building. Here a certain amount of academic instruction was given to a limited number of both sexes, but the undertaking was hampered by debt, and for a time its energies were diverted by hopes of obtaining the estate which Lewis B. Parsons had bequeathed to the Presbyterians of Iowa for the foundation of a college. During the years 1867 to 1871 the Cedar Rapids Collegiate Institute bore the name of Parsons Seminary, but the Synod of Iowa finally decided to use the Parsons legacy in establishing a new institution at Fairfield, a town seventy miles to the south, and the school at Cedar Rapids for

a time closed its doors. When it reopened it was under private management, but in a few years the former administration was resumed, the title being changed to Coe Collegiate Institute.

The endowment of the institute continued to be insufficient, and it was forced to contract a considerable indebtedness. This indebtedness was the more embarrassing, owing to the high rates of interest then prevalent in Iowa. Mr. Thomas M. Sinclair, a merchant of Cedar Rapids and a trustee of the institute, believed that the undertaking could be put upon a firm financial and educational basis if once this accumulation of debt could be cleared away. He therefore paid many of the institute's notes out of his own funds, induced many other holders of obligations to make a present of their claims to the institution, and by 1881 the debt having been entirely removed the institution obtained a new charter under the laws of Iowa as Coe College, and entered upon a new career. Three times within recent years the friends of Coe College have raised considerable funds to enable it to take advantage of offers of financial assistance. In 1901 and 1902 there were raised \$125,000 in order that the college might receive a conditional gift of \$25,000, made by Mr. Ralph Voorhees of New Jersey. In 1907 friends of the college contributed \$45,000 necessary to secure the erection of a \$63,000 Science Hall offered by Mr. Andrew Carnegie. At the same time the college constituency endeavored to raise \$200,000 which would make available a conditional gift of \$50,000 from the General Education Board. This endeavor was successfully accomplished.

When, through the exertions of Mr. Sinclair and others, the Coe Collegiate Institute was free of debt and felt itself strong enough to apply for a collegiate charter, it was considered by its friends desirable that the institution should be placed under the formal control of the church of which the Reverend Williston Jones had been a minister, and to which Daniel Coe belonged. The Synod of Iowa of the Presbyterian Church North accepted the care of the institution and appointed a provisional board of trustees. In the charter of incorporation of Coe College this provisional board was continued, and it was enacted that in the future the synod should continue to elect the trustees, one-third each year. In 1893 this charter provision was amended and the election of trustees was transferred from the Synod of Iowa to the board of trustees itself, with the proviso that every such election should be reported to the synod, and, as the charter expressed it, "shall be subject to its approval."

The government of Coe College was of this status when, in the early part of 1906, its president applied for the inclusion of the institution upon the accepted list of the Carnegie Foundation. The executive committee had decided that a requirement in a college charter for the submission of the election of the trustees to an ecclesiastical assembly for its approval was contrary to the provision in the charter of the Foundation prohibiting the recognition of colleges "controlled by a sect." The president of the Foundation so informed the president of Coe College.

At the meeting of the Synod of Iowa at Sac City, on October 15, 1907, upon the recommendation of the Permanent Committee on Colleges and Education, the synod gave its consent to the change of Coe College's charter whereby the election of trustees would not have to be submitted to the synod for approval. The trustees on October 22, 1907, therefore struck this provision from the charter, substituting therefor the words "and the election shall be reported to the Synod of Iowa." The college authorities informed the Foundation of this change and again applied for admission. In reply the president of the Foundation pointed out that a charter provision requiring a report to be made to an external body of elections to the college governing board would probably create in the public mind the impression that the college was still subject to outside control. The president also suggested that a requirement for such a report might also form the basis for some legal claim of control in the future. On June 9, 1908, the board of trustees of Coe College made an additional change in the charter, eliminating the necessity for a report to the synod of any proceeding of the board, and making the college completely autonomous. The college was admitted on November 12, 1908, to the retiring allowance system of the Foundation.

SWARTHMORE COLLEGE

- Swarthmore College is the result of the division which occurred in the Society of Friends during the second quarter of the nineteenth century. From the days of George Fox until that time the society had maintained its unity, but the revulsion against the extreme Calvinistic doctrines which began during the period of the French Revolution had an effect even upon a religious body so relatively undogmatic as the Friends. In 1827 the Philadelphia Yearly Meeting separated into two bodies composed respectively of the adherents of the conservative views, and of those whose opinions somewhat closely resembled the opinions held by Dr. Channing and his followers in New England. A prominent leader among the latter was the Reverend Elias Hicks of Long Island, after whom this branch of the denomination is frequently called; both bodies, however, claiming officially the title of the Religious Society of Friends.

This separation among the Philadelphia Friends was later followed in other meetings. In the division of the Baltimore Yearly Meeting four-fifths of the members adhered to the organization which was in sympathy with Mr. Hicks, and that Meeting displayed peculiar zeal in forwarding the principles of Quakerism as they were interpreted by this set of followers. Just before the civil war the desirability of the establishment of a Friends' institution of higher education was felt so strongly that two Friends, Benjamin Hallowell of Alexandria, Virginia, and Martha Tyson of Baltimore, made an earnest appeal to their fellow Friends of the Baltimore Meeting. This appeal produced the appointment of a committee by the Yearly Meeting.

By the first year of the war the committee had decided upon its plan, and issued an appeal to the Friends in the Middle States and Maryland, asking for contribu-

tions to enable "the establishment of a boarding-school for Friends' children and for the education of teachers." One hundred and fifty thousand dollars were desired for this purpose. Collections for this fund went on during the years of the war; and in 1864 a charter was granted by the state of Pennsylvania for the college. To this institution, at the suggestion of Mrs. Benjamin Hallowell, was given the name of Swarthmore, in honor of the North England home of George Fox. The site, in the Delaware valley about ten miles west of Philadelphia, included the birthplace of Benjamin West, the first great American artist, himself of Quaker parentage.

In the spring of 1866 the corner-stone of the first building was laid, but the college did not open its doors for students until the fall of 1869. The delay was occasioned by the fact that the requisite sum of money came in slowly, and the board of managers had decided that the college should not begin its career under any debt. The first president was Edward Parrish of Philadelphia, President of the American Pharmaceutical Society, and author of a work on *Education in the Society of Friends*. The first building of the college was named after him.

Twelve years after its completion, at the beginning of the academic year in 1881, Parrish Hall was destroyed by fire. The work of the college was interrupted only for a fortnight. The institution took up its residence in two large boarding-houses in the borough of Media, three miles distant, and held its classes there until, in the following October, the students could again be installed in the rebuilt hall. The "great fire," as it is called at Swarthmore, served to rally the friends of the college around it.

At the opening of the college in 1869 the number of students enrolled was one hundred and seventy, about equally divided between the sexes, but with only twenty-six students able to pass the examination for admission to college classes. The remaining one hundred and forty-four were distributed among three classes in a preparatory school. From this per cent of college students, the proportion of college students to the preparatory school pupils slowly rose; in 1892 the preparatory school was finally closed. The enrolment of students, exclusively college, now numbers three hundred and fifty, the number of college buildings is ten, and the endowment has for some years exceeded a million dollars.

The original charter of Swarthmore College constituted the corporation in the form of a stock company, as was at that time usual in the case of Pennsylvania colleges. The only function of the stockholders, however, was to elect at an annual meeting the members of the board of managers, "all of whom," directs the charter, "shall be members of the Religious Society of Friends." In December, 1891, upon the petition of the college to the court having appropriate jurisdiction a board of corporators was constituted for the purpose of acquiring and holding shares of Swarthmore College stock and voting upon them for members of the board of managers. It was provided that "the qualifications for taking and for holding the office of member of the Board of Corporators shall be, that he or she must be an adult member

of the Religious Society of Friends, under whose auspices Swarthmore College was founded." At the same time the qualification for membership of the board of managers was changed by adding to the provision that they shall be members of the Religious Society of Friends the additional words "under whose auspices Swarthmore College was founded." The effect of this additional clause was to change the requirements for the governing board of the college from Friends in general to the particular denomination of Friends popularly called "Hicksites." In 1897 there was incorporated under the laws of Pennsylvania another corporation entitled The Swarthmore Stock Association, to be a sort of unofficial holding company alongside of the official board of incorporators of the college,—the object of the association, as set forth in its charter, being, with the approval of Swarthmore College, "the purpose of assisting in keeping the said college under the control and management of the Religious Society of Friends, under whose auspices it was founded."

In the spring of 1908 Swarthmore College made application for admission to the Carnegie Foundation. Its officers urged that the college was eligible to such admission, notwithstanding the charter provisions quoted above, on the ground that the Society of Friends "has no creed and cannot be said to be a sectarian body in any proper sense of the word. . . . Each person is free to form his own creed or to have no creed if that is possible." It was also pointed out that Friends as a body are not eligible for membership in the Christian Association, "as they are not on the whole evangelical," and that this was peculiarly true of the Friends known as Hicksite Friends. As Swarthmore College is the only college connected with the Hicksite Friends, it was suggested to the Foundation that its admission would not create a precedent.

The president of the Carnegie Foundation replied, on behalf of the executive committee, that on June 4, 1908, the committee had considered the petition of Swarthmore College. "It involved practically the determination as to whether the Society of Friends must be regarded as a sect." On this point the committee was agreed that "notwithstanding the great freedom of the Society of Friends, it still seems impossible for us to say that the restriction of choice of the board of trustees to that body can be regarded in a different light from the restriction of a board to the Methodists or Congregationalists."

On December 1, 1908, the annual meeting of the stockholders of Swarthmore College authorized the board of managers to have all the denominational requirements upon members of the various boards stricken from the college charter. The request to this effect was acted upon favorably by the Court of Common Pleas for Delaware County, Pennsylvania, on January 28, 1909, and the charter of the college was so amended. On March 11, 1909, the board of managers passed a resolution that membership in a designated religious body would not be made a test for membership in the board, or in any office in Swarthmore College; and the college having been visited by the president of the Foundation, it was formally admitted on April 8, 1909, to the list of accepted institutions of the Foundation.

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THE UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

The history of the University of Michigan is the history of the first attempt by an American state to establish a system of public education, complete and harmonious from the primary school through the university. It was not until the fourth organization of the university under the constitution of 1850 that the attempt began to be successful, but the three previous organizations had represented similar ideals.

The Supreme Court has decided that the present university is the same corporate body that was created by the governor and judges when, on August 26, 1817, sitting as the legislative power of the territory, they incorporated the "Catholopistemiad of Michigan." The "Catholopistemiad" was to be governed by thirteen "didactors," whose "didaxiim" covered the sixty-three "epistemiim" of universal knowledge. The "didactors" were also to establish colleges, schools, libraries, museums, and scientific associations throughout all the cities and counties of Michigan, and it would seem that Judge Woodward, the author of this legislation, followed in many ways the plan of Napoleon's University of France.

Within a month after its creation, this comprehensive scheme was started in operation. The governor appointed as "didactor of anthropoglossica" and six other "didaxiim" the Reverend John Monteith, a Princeton graduate, and the Presbyterian minister in Detroit. The "didaxiim of ennoeica" and five others were given to Monseigneur Richard, the Roman Catholic Bishop of Detroit. The two holders of these thirteen professorships had been trained under different systems of education and differed in their purposes and ideals, but during the existence of the "Catholopistemiad" their energy in founding an educational system for Michigan was always conducted with harmony. Notwithstanding that the "didactors" never received the one-fifteenth of the territorial revenues which were given to them in perpetuity by their charter, nor even drew the four lotteries assigned to them for building purposes, they established in the first few weeks of their authority English schools in Detroit, Monroe, and Mackinaw, and soon followed this by the opening in Detroit of a classical academy and the erection there of a building for the First College of Michigan. The schools and academy were progressing favorably when, on April 30, 1821, the governor and judges superseded the "Catholopistemiad" and its "didactors" by a University of Michigan with thirty-one trustees.

This second organization differed from the first mainly, with the exception of the change of nomenclature, in the governing board being outside the teaching force, instead of being made up of the body of professors. The control over territorial education remained as before. But the trustees did not have the energy of the "didactors." By 1827 all the educational establishments of the "Catholopistemiad" had died out.

The third organization was due to the constitutional convention of 1835, the chairman of whose education committee was Isaac E. Crary, Trinity '27, a student

of the Prussian educational ideas. The constitution provided for a superintendent of public instruction, the first of the kind in the United States, and John D. Pierce, the first superintendent, drew up the university act for the initial state legislature. It was made the duty of the regents to establish branches of the university in different parts of the state, but not more than one branch in each county. These branches were not, however, to be permitted to confer degrees. Mr. Pierce had been inclined to suggest that the constitution prohibit altogether private institutions of learning, and he and his friends sought to prevent the legislature from chartering private colleges, or at least from creating colleges with degree-conferring power. In this he was not successful.

The establishment and maintenance of branches early received the attention of the regents. In 1838 the board resolved to establish eight of them, and by the time the university itself was opened, in 1841, these eight were in operation. But it was soon discovered that the resources of the regents would not provide for the university and for the branches also, and by 1846 the branches began to die out. The regents had spent \$35,000 on them and could spend no more, for the revenue from their lands hardly kept open the institution at Ann Arbor.

These lands had been well located, and at first it had seemed as if they would be advantageously sold. The legislature of 1837 had put upon them a minimum price of \$20 an acre, and by the close of the year Superintendent Pierce had contracted for the sale of \$150,000 worth of them, the average price per acre being \$22.85. But the legislature of Michigan, like other state legislatures, could not withstand the pressure of thousands of voters who wanted the university lands cheap. In 1839 an act was passed which, ostensibly to protect prior occupants, would probably have thrown all the university lands on the market at \$1.25 an acre. Governor Mason vetoed this, but in 1841 the minimum was reduced to \$12 an acre, and former purchasers were remitted the difference. The average price at which the federal grant to Michigan for her university was sold was \$11.87 per acre.

The legislature never gave the control of the lands unreservedly to the regents, but the sentiment was growing that in general the board should have more power, and that the university should have an efficient administrative head. These ideas took shape in the constitutional convention of 1850. It was there provided that the regents should be elected by the people, that they should elect a president of the university who should preside over their board, and that to this board should be given "the general supervision of the university, and the direction and control of all expenditures." The Supreme Court has decided that the constitution constitutes the regents a constituent power of the state government, coördinate with the legislative, the executive, and the judicial powers, and they have thus been able to ward off legislative interference. The income of the trust funds, as well as all admission fees and tuition charges, are within their absolute control. The legislature still holds the public purse, but this power carries no mandate to the regents, except that if they

accept an appropriation they must use it for the purpose specified. Under this freedom, then unique in governmental systems of education, the University of Michigan developed rapidly. The form the development took was largely determined by the character and ideals of the first president, the Reverend Henry P. Tappan.

President Tappan, who had been educated at Union College under Eliphalet Nott, and had won recognition by his books on philosophy, saw in Michigan an opportunity to reproduce in America the German university. Courses of graduate studies were at once announced, scientific courses were introduced into the arts curriculum, and the beginnings of an elective system were made. The former method of distributing professorial chairs equally among the ministers of several denominations was definitely abandoned. Only a candidate's qualifications were considered, and the men selected within the first few years included Cleveland Abbe and William P. Trowbridge, Charles Kendall Adams and Andrew D. White. Many of the plans necessarily were for the future rather than for the present. Michigan could not yet maintain a university, but President Tappan created what would develop into a university as soon as the means were provided.

But Dr. Tappan was determined that the University of Michigan should reproduce exactly the German model. He was impatient for it to confine itself to graduate and professional studies, and although the college, or *gymnasium* as he called it, had to be retained for a time, he swept away what accessories he could. The dormitories were turned to other uses, the president desiring to "relieve the faculty of the care and annoyance of supervision," and being of the opinion that the charm of an academic communal life was "more than balanced by so much of home as a student could find in a lodging-house or boarding-house."¹

In 1858 the board of regents was entirely changed, and after some friction it removed Dr. Tappan from office in 1863 and elected a successor. But a few years later the board spread on its records a formal recognition of Dr. Tappan's services, and its regret at any action seeming to indicate a want of gratitude for those services. During the short administration of his immediate successor, and the long and distinguished administration which is now drawing to a close, the resources of the regents have been largely expended in carrying into execution the educational ideals which Dr. Tappan formed in the days of the university's beginnings.

In 1907-08 the appropriations by the state for the university were \$667,000, and the total annual revenue in the hands of the regents was \$1,119,000. The university is organized in six departments: the department of literature, science and the arts (including the graduate school), the department of engineering, the department of medicine and surgery, the department of law, the school of pharmacy, the homeopathic medical college and the college of dental surgery. The attendance in 1908-09 was 4720.

The secondary school system of the state of Michigan is not uniformly developed

¹ *History of the University of Michigan*, by Professor Burke A. Hinsdale.

throughout the state. Like the other state universities, the University of Michigan admits students almost entirely upon the certificate basis, and its task, therefore, of articulating with various grades of high schools is an unusually complicated one. For the year 1908-09 there were in Michigan 450 high schools having 12 grades, and 128 high schools having from 9 to 11 grades. Of these 578 schools the university accredits 180; in other words, it articulates with about thirty per cent of the high schools of the state. There is no state aid to high schools.

Notwithstanding this imperfect coordination of the state system of education, the university during the last few years has stood squarely for a standard of approximately a four-year high school course for admission to the department of literature, science and arts. The exact data for the admissions to this department for the year 1908-09 were as follows:

Students admitted with 15 units or more	386
Students admitted with 14½ to 15 units	95
Students admitted with 14 to 14½ units	91
Students admitted with 13½ to 14 units	14
Students admitted with 13 units	2
Students admitted with 12½ units	3
Students admitted on examination	4
	<hr/> 455

These figures need explanation. Of the 15 units required for admission, 3 must be in English composition and literature, 3 in mathematics, 1 in physics, and at least 2 in Latin, German or French. The remaining 6 units are elective from a group of subjects usually taught in high schools. Owing to the large per cent of prescribed studies, a student is frequently conditioned, although he has completed the course of an accredited school. Thus he may have given too large a portion of his time in the high school to such subjects as manual training, shop-work, geology, political economy, psychology, or astronomy, none of which is accepted by the university for entrance credit. Twenty-seven of the students who were admitted with deficiencies according to the data given above had pursued one or more such subjects in their high school course.

The University of Michigan deserves credit for its regulation with regard to special students. An analysis of the constituency applying for admission as special students showed that many students who were unable to meet the regular entrance requirements waited for a few years after leaving their high school work and then applied for admission as special students on the basis of being twenty-one years of age. Accordingly, last year restrictions were adopted which limit the classes of special students to persons over twenty-five years of age, or to persons between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-five who have fulfilled certain academic conditions. Special students were admitted last year as follows:

Twenty-one years of age	14 students
Twenty-two years of age	3 students
Twenty-three years of age	3 students
Twenty-six years of age	1 student
	<hr/> 91 students

There are two medical departments in the university, the regular and the homeopathic. The regular department requires for entrance two years of college work, including physics, chemistry and biology; it is a well managed and well equipped institution from every point of view. The liberal policy of the state in respect to its hospital has enabled the school to surmount in large measure the difficulties resulting from its location in a small town. The homeopathic department has also its own hospital, not quite so large, but well equipped and adequate to its needs.

The first two years of medical instruction are common to both regular and homeopathic departments. This has involved no serious difficulty up to the present time, because the entrance requirements have been the same. But henceforth, though the regular department demands two years of college work, the homeopathic department remains on a high school basis. It would appear that some slighting of the homeopathic students must result.

The law department of the university is on a high school basis, administered by the dean of the department. This standard is as high as can be reasonably demanded at this time of the state universities of the south, but it is a standard unworthy of a great university like Michigan. The dean and the faculty of the law school have urged for some years a higher standard.

The regents of the University of Michigan, on April 24, 1908, applied for the admission of the university to the Carnegie Foundation. This action having been approved by a joint resolution of the legislature of Michigan, signed by Governor Warner on February 11, 1909, of which a certified copy was transmitted by the secretary of state, the University of Michigan was, on June 4, 1909, admitted to the retiring allowance system of the Carnegie Foundation.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Although the University of Minnesota owes its foundation to land grants of the federal government, the title of founder might be given to John S. Pillsbury. At least Mr. Pillsbury is responsible in a large measure for the development of the institution. The first endowment was received from an act approved by President Fillmore on February 19, 1851, a few days after the university had been incorporated by the territorial legislature. It consisted of two townships of land sufficient, if held until the country became settled, to equal the resources of the largest American universities. The regents, however, adopted a policy under which the endowment was almost lost.

A preparatory school was opened by the regents in December, 1851, in a frame building within the present site of Minneapolis. While this property was still under

mortgage, the regents asked for plans and bids for a permanent university building, and in a meeting at Mendota on August 26, 1856, over the protest of Governor Ramsey, the signer of the original charter, they authorized the execution of one of the most expensive of the plans. Labor and materials were then at the height of "boom" prices, and to pay contractors out of an empty treasury the regents borrowed money, often at a rate as high as three per cent a month. When a panic came in 1857 the regents had an unfinished building and liabilities of \$100,000, a great debt for the undeveloped territory of Minnesota.

The first state legislature, considering that the territorial establishment had lapsed, created on February 4, 1860, a new University of Minnesota, with Governor Ramsey again the head of the board of regents. The new board made some slight financial improvements, and sent their secretary to the east to persuade the creditors to accept agricultural lands at two dollars an acre and pine lands at four dollars an acre in satisfaction of their claims. Only about \$7000 was extinguished in this way; the remainder of the creditors, being suspicious of western lands and holding that their claims were an obligation of the state, refused. The only resource seemed to be the transfer of all of the federal land grant to parties who would make themselves responsible for the entire indebtedness. Strong financial interests, capable of awaiting future development, might thus relieve the state of its burden. The creation of a commission to negotiate to this effect was recommended by Governor Ramsey in his message to the legislature in 1862. This was tantamount to abandoning the university.

But in 1863 the district of St. Anthony elected John S. Pillsbury to the senate of Minnesota. Mr. Pillsbury had a few months before been made a regent of the university. Both his obligations in this office and his duty to his constituents impelled him to study the university situation. As a merchant of St. Anthony he was acquainted with the construction of the university building, the change of hand of the notes and bonds negotiated by the regents, and the present status of the bank paper issued against the university lands. Mr. Pillsbury's further investigation convinced him that the financial affairs of the institution might be adjusted. Much of the regents' obligations represented a cost to present holders of only twenty-five to fifty cents on the dollar; cash offers on this basis would generally be accepted. The land under agricultural lease in Rice County, if disentangled from judgments and other legal complications, might be sold at advanced prices, and made the means of saving other portions of the endowment. The legislature was persuaded by Mr. Pillsbury to intrust the affairs of the university to an extraordinary board of three regents, invested with plenary powers, and the governor appointed Mr. Pillsbury as the head of this board. So doubtful was the prospect that the two other regents could be secured only by Mr. Pillsbury making personal appeals to his friends.

The regents began by becoming personally responsible for the judgments against the Rice County lands. Good title could thereby be given, and the prices obtained for these lands were greater than Mr. Pillsbury had hoped. As the purchase money

came in, the board bought at compromise rates forty thousand dollars' worth of bonds issued by the former board. This issue had been secured by mortgage upon the choicest tract of the university lands, and the redemption of the bonds released the most valuable asset of the university from obligation. Thereafter the clearing away of the debt was conducted with hope of success, and always with equity.

The report of Mr. Pillsbury to the legislature of 1867 showed that the debt had been cleared by the sale of fifteen thousand acres of the federal grant. Thirty-two thousand acres remained to the university. There was thenceforth no more agitation for abandoning the institution. The legislature immediately appropriated fifteen thousand dollars to repair the dilapidated building and to start anew the preparatory department, which was reopened in the fall of 1867. In 1868 the present charter of the university was adopted by the legislature, and collegiate instruction began with the inauguration of President Folwell in the last days of 1869. Mr. Pillsbury was continued as a regent in the new board.

His activity for the university had not ceased with the saving of the endowment. Continuing to sit in the state senate, he drew the charter, and in the same year, against the opposition of the agricultural college at Glencoe and the friends of the normal schools, he obtained the passage of the bill securing to the university the agricultural college grant made by Congress in 1862. This added one hundred and twenty thousand acres to the university endowment, and prevented the rivalry of competing state institutions. In the early seventies he rendered other signal service. The enabling act for Minnesota had been supposed to add forty-six thousand acres to the university endowment, but despite the efforts of the three regents, the Secretary of the Interior had construed the act unfavorably to the state. Alexander Ramsey was now a United States senator. He brought the matter to the attention of Congress, and in 1870 secured a new act granting to Minnesota this amount of land. The act provided that the governor should make the selection, and Governor Cushman K. Davis allowed himself to be guided by Mr. Pillsbury. Through his influence the university acquired much pine timber land at fifty cents an acre; as early as 1889 the timber on one of these tracts was sold by the university for one hundred and fifty thousand dollars. In 1884 Mr. Pillsbury, then recently retired from the governorship of Minnesota, gave to the university Pillsbury Hall, at a cost of one hundred and fifty thousand dollars.

Many years elapsed before the income from the federal grants could become available, and as during those years the appropriations from the state were small, the university advanced slowly. In 1874 the legislature appropriated \$23,000 for the university, and until 1886 this was the amount of the annual grant. In the latter year this sum was increased to \$35,000, and by 1894 it had risen to \$65,000. In that year the legislature gave to the university the benefit of a tax of 15/100 of a mill on each dollar. A large increase of revenue followed, and in 1908 with a 23/100 mill tax and additional appropriations by the legislature, the support from Minnesota was \$400,000. The total income of the university was almost \$700,000.

In 1888 the regents discontinued the preparatory school, but in 1888 they opened another school below collegiate grade. The collegiate department of agriculture, although well equipped, had hitherto not been a success. Its enrolment in any one session had never exceeded fourteen students, and there had been years in which not one student was receiving instruction. The Farmers' Alliance was arguing for an agricultural institution separate from the university. The regents therefore opened a school of agriculture, for admission to which an elementary education only is required. The school has been well attended from the beginning; it plans to take the farm boy of fifteen or sixteen, who has had merely the opportunities of the grade schools, and, after giving him practical instruction in farming, to send him back to the country a more efficient farmer. About ninety per cent of the graduates, it is claimed, return to the farm. In 1908-09 the number of students in the school of agriculture was 572; and under legislative authority, a coördinate school of the same character was opened during that year at Crookston, for the benefit of the farming population of the Red River Valley.

Similar to the situation in Wisconsin, there is great uniformity in the secondary school system in Minnesota, due to intelligent state inspection and supervision. All public high schools which meet the requirements of the state high school board with regard to equipment, teachers, and schedule of teachers' salaries may receive aid from the state. As a result of these regulations there are at present 206 well equipped high schools in Minnesota, each offering a four-year course, and there are practically no three-year high schools. The university, therefore, with its requirements for admission of 15 units to the college of science, literature and the arts, and to the college of engineering and the mechanic arts, articulates as perfectly with the schools of the state as any university in the United States with its respective school system.

The requirements for admission to the university indicate, further, admirable coöperation with the schools. Six units are definitely specified and nine may be selected from a group of electives. No student is admitted to the university without examination unless he is able to present a detailed certificate of graduation showing at least 15 units. In the usual sense the conditioned student is not admitted. A student may enter the university, however, if he presents a certificate of 15 units provided that at least four and a half of the six specified units appear upon the certificate. In every case the specified subjects which may thus be lacking must subsequently be made up. The records of the university for the academic year 1908-09 show that the regulations were enforced without exception. Five hundred and seventy-eight students were admitted on the basis of 15 units, the number deficient in prescribed work being as follows:

Twenty-five students deficient in	.5 unit
Nineteen students deficient in	1.0 unit
Nine students deficient in	1.5 units

The medical department of the university is adequately provided with teachers and equipped with laboratories to give the first two years of the medical course. Its clinical department is not at this time entirely satisfactory, but is rapidly being developed. The university has funds in bank (\$750,000) with which to build laboratories and a university hospital.

The general outlook for medical education in the state is the best among the middle western states. The requirements for admission to the medical department are two years of college work, and the state board, in order to uphold this standard, will refuse a license for the practice of medicine after 1912 to anyone who graduates on a lower basis outside of the state. The homeopathic medical department was recently abandoned.

The requirements for admission to the college of law in 1908-09 were one year of college work; in 1910-11 this requirement will be advanced to two years of college work.

On February 10, 1909, Governor John A. Johnson approved a joint resolution of the legislature of Minnesota, validating the action of the board of regents of the state university in applying, on May 8, 1908, for admission to the accepted list of the Carnegie Foundation. A certified copy of this law having been transmitted by the secretary of state, the University of Minnesota, with the exception of its agricultural department, was admitted, on June 4, 1909, to the retiring allowance system of the Carnegie Foundation.

THE UNIVERSITY OF TORONTO

Before the close of the eighteenth century the crown had taken steps, upon an address from the Parliament of Upper Canada, to make a permanent provision for the educational needs of that province. In 1798 five hundred thousand acres of land were set apart as an endowment, one half of which were to be reserved for a proposed university. The lands were, however, unproductive, and as the provincial parliament felt itself unable to grant appropriations, the project for a university made no progress until the nineteenth century was well advanced.

In 1826 the government of Sir Peregrine Maitland was persuaded to revive the plan for provincial higher education. It sent a commissioner to London, the Venerable John Strachan, Archdeacon of York, a member of the upper house of Parliament and of the Executive Council, who had been a prominent public man in Canada since his arrival a few years after taking his degree at the University of Aberdeen in 1797. The commissioner was directed, first, to persuade the crown to grant productive lands in the settled portions of the province as an educational endowment instead of the unproductive lands hitherto granted; and second, to secure a royal charter with full university powers. In both these objects the archdeacon was successful, obtaining also for the new corporation of King's College an annual grant from the crown of £1000 a year. But although the college was to be open to

all without restriction, its government was to be in close alliance with the Church of England.

As the majority of the people in Upper Canada did not belong to the Anglican Communion, the charter aroused great opposition, and the House of Assembly presented an address to the king, praying that the charter might be canceled and a new one granted free from the house's objection. For many years the political, as well as the educational, history of the province is largely concerned with the character of the university.

Various attempts at a compromise between these conflicting interests failed, and in the general election of 1849 the educational problem was one of the questions at issue. The Liberal party won a majority of the seats, and the new premier, Robert Baldwin, immediately laid before parliament a comprehensive measure completely altering the previous status. According to this act the government of the university was in the control of the state, the faculty of divinity being abolished, ecclesiastics being excluded from office, and religious worship according to any prescribed form being prohibited. This law remained in force only for four years. In 1853 the successor of Mr. Baldwin in the premiership proposed a new measure, the fundamental principle of which was the withdrawal from the university of the work of teaching, all instruction being relegated to separate but affiliated colleges, while the university continued only as a financial and examining body. At the same time University College was created and the faculty of arts transferred to it.

These measures, providing for the absolute secularization of higher education in the province, were attacked as well by the former opponents of King's College as by those who had governed it. Queen's College, Victoria College, and Knox College refused to become affiliated with the new university any more than with the old one, and Dr. Strachan, now the first Bishop of Toronto, set himself with energy to found a college where the atmosphere of the Church of England should prevail. In 1851 he presided at the opening of Trinity College, an institution made possible by contributions received from the United States and from England, as well as in Canada.

Under this system of organization higher education remained in Ontario until 1887. Several years before that time the revenue derived from the royal grant had become insufficient for the support of the university and it had appealed to the provincial parliament for an annual appropriation. The colleges in the province at once objected, urging that while they were doing one-half or more of the university work of the province, all public assistance had been withdrawn from them and that the university, although in name and endowments provincial, was in reality a rival and competing institution. The original endowment the colleges had regarded as a munificent gift from the imperial government which parliament might do with as it wished; public taxation, however, for the support of the favored University College they regarded as inequitable. A large section of the electorate supported the colleges in this attitude.

Instead of a bitter controversy resulting from these divergent views, the educators of Ontario, with patience and wide comprehension, used the opportunity as a means of creating an educational institution, national both in its resources and in its inclusion of all of the elements valuable in the national life. The authorities of the University of Toronto were willing to include in the provincial system of education colleges in which the students were surrounded by the religious associations of their respective homes. The authorities of these colleges were equally willing to assist in the formation of a strong state institution to whose immediate care should be intrusted graduate and professional studies, and the undergraduate instruction of students who did not desire the opportunities afforded by the denominational colleges. With such a temper, alike removed from religious and secularist prejudice, the negotiations finally resulted in the creation, by the Federation Act of 1887, of a University of Toronto which could accurately be styled the university of the province.

The fundamental principles of the university organization are that the province supports the graduate and professional departments and also the undergraduate University College, and confers its degrees upon the graduates of the denominational colleges. These denominational colleges, situated upon the university campus, have autonomy, with representation upon the governing bodies of the university, and with privileges for their students of attending any university class or taking part in any university activity. For the purpose of protecting these different interests, a federal organization of remarkable complexity was established, whose checks and balances have been from time to time simplified, as the years have removed suspicion and improved harmonious coöperation.

This federation, although thus arranged by legislation in 1887, did not go immediately into effect. In 1890 there was federated with the university Knox College (the institution of the United Free Presbyterian Church), Wycliffe College (the theological seminary of the Church of England in Canada), and Victoria University (the college of the Methodist Church); but it was not until 1901 that Trinity University, the college of the Church of England in Canada, entered the federation. This union was accompanied by an Act of Parliament which carried further the principle laid down in 1887. More complete autonomy was secured to the federating colleges; and at the same time University College, by the separation of its finances from those of the university, was placed upon a more equal footing with the denominational colleges. There is also affiliated with the university St. Michael's College, a foundation of the Basilian Fathers of the Roman Catholic Church. The only institution of higher education in Ontario remaining outside of the University of Toronto is Queen's University, the college of the Presbyterian Church, which at the time of the Federation Act had recently completed costly improvements upon its site at Kingston, and did not consider it expedient to abandon eastern Ontario.

The relation of the University of Toronto to the secondary school system of Ontario was a subject of consideration by the Foundation. In government the school

system is centralized. The high schools receive aid from the provincial government and are subject to inspection and supervision by the Provincial Department of Education. The department also conducts the examinations for promotion.

The school law of the province divides the high school work into three divisions or forms: first, the lower school (a two or three year course); second, the middle school (a one or two year course); and third, the upper school (a one or two year course). Each principal may make his own organization of the forms. In practice the full high school curriculum covers six years, each year including forty weeks. Usually each form covers two years. The uniformity is due to the provincial high school inspectors who carry from school to school traditions and recommendations with regard to standards.

Admission from the high school into the university is in the main from two points, which are based upon two principal examinations conducted by the provincial inspectors. These are, first, the junior matriculation examination, which students are able to pass, as a rule, after three or four years of study; and second, the senior leaving or honor examination, which students usually meet after five or six years. Time is therefore not a determining factor of the course. The subjects included in the junior matriculation are Latin, English, history, mathematics (including arithmetic, algebra, and plane geometry) and any two of the following,—Greek, German, French, or experimental science. In the junior matriculation a student fails who obtains less than forty per cent in the examination; the first class honor standard is seventy-five per cent. The percentages are not easily comparable with examination standards in American high schools and colleges. Not more than once in a generation in Ontario does a high school produce a student who obtains an average of ninety per cent.

The subjects covered by the junior matriculation examination are about equivalent to those given in three years of the standard four-year high school in the United States, and the boy entering the university through this examination is about a year younger than the graduate of an American high school. As he is taught, however, by trained teachers and in a thorough way, he will have received better discipline in the fundamental subjects. Recent statistics of the province show that the average student enters the high school at 14.2 years, and passes from the high school into the university at 17.2, 18.2, or 19.2 years, according to his ability and according to the leaving point which he chooses.

The successful candidate for the honor matriculation certificate enters the university in the second year of the college, or even with more advanced standing. The university is now considering the admission of students only after honor examination; no steps have, however, been taken yet to this end. At present there are no accredited high schools, although the uniformity of organization and instruction in the Ontario schools and their provincial inspection and control would form a basis for a successful accrediting system.

In the schools of law and of medicine admission rests upon the junior matriculation examination. These schools are maintained upon a high plane. The laws of Ontario have prevented the growth of the many law schools and medical schools which exist in the United States. In medicine the course at the University of Toronto is five years. The organization and laboratory equipment are among the best on the continent. The clinical facilities are good and are to be increased by a new and thoroughly equipped hospital to be under the control of the university. The tone of the professional schools is admirable.

The board of governors of the University of Toronto on June 11, 1908, adopted a resolution requesting the admission of the university to the privileges of the Carnegie Foundation. Upon the report of the Minister of Education, this action of the university authorities was approved by His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor in Council by an Order in Council of March 5, 1909. On March 8, 1909, Sir James P. Whitney, Prime Minister of Ontario, presented to the Legislative Assembly of the Province the Order in Council, and upon his motion the application of the university was approved likewise by the house. This action of the university, the parliament, and the representative of the crown having been officially certified by the clerk of the Executive Council and the clerk of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario, the University of Toronto was, on June 4, 1909, admitted to the retiring allowance system of the Carnegie Foundation.

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

The legal existence of the University of Wisconsin extends from territorial days. On January 19, 1838, Governor Dodge approved the act of the territorial legislature then sitting at Burlington, in what is now Iowa, incorporating the university and locating it at the future capital. It was not, however, until statehood was attained, in 1848, that the institution took material form. On July 26 of that year the first state legislature incorporated anew the University of Wisconsin, in which, according to the state constitution, was vested as a perpetual endowment the proceeds of all aids given by the United States.

The history of the university for its first thirty years is the history of a struggle by the regents to carry out their educational trust in the face of a disregard by the legislature of this constitutional mandate. Three donations of land were received by Wisconsin from the federal government, each of which under good management would have made a generous endowment for any university. But each of these donations was largely wasted in an endeavor to attract new settlers, leaving the regents to maintain with difficulty a small preparatory school and then an inadequate college. The first donation was a grant by Congress of two townships of public land to the territory of Wisconsin. This land was located before statehood, and located with judgment, but the same state legislature which incorporated the university threw

away the benefits of this careful selection. The legislature was induced by interested parties to fix a minimum of \$8 an acre upon the university land and in consequence less than \$150,000 were realized. If the land had been held for a few years it would have brought in that amount increased many fold.

The second donation was given in 1854 as a substitute for the usual seventy-two sections of saline land in the enabling act. These lands were promptly selected from the best available land in Wisconsin, land whose market value was at that time from \$10 to \$20 an acre. The legislature immediately offered it for \$8 an acre. The total receipts from this source were therefore only \$138,000.

Five times the amount of the former grants were received by Wisconsin under the provision of the so-called Morrill grant of 1862, her quota being two hundred and forty thousand acres. The legislature this time exceeded its former improvidence, for it ordered all of this land to be offered for sale at the fixed price of \$1.25 an acre. Cornell University invested a portion of New York's share of this grant in Wisconsin pine lands and has drawn from this source a sum exceeding \$7,000,000, while the University of Wisconsin to-day receives from the same grant only \$12,000 a year.

The income on the proceeds of the Morrill grant was, however, assured to the university, for Mr. Morrill induced Congress to throw certain safeguards around this appropriation. Not more than ten per cent of the fund could be used for buildings, and the state guarantees the interest on the remainder of the fund. Much of the previous federal grants had been lost in the absence of similar restrictions. The commissioners of the university and school lands had been directed by the Wisconsin legislature to invest those funds in loans to individuals. The loans were made in sums not exceeding \$500 to thousands of persons in all parts of the state, and in 1862, when the investment of the funds was restricted by the legislature to bonds issued under authority of the United States or of the states, an investigation showed that the deficit occasioned through the former method was considerable. In addition to this means of depleting the endowment, the legislature declined to appropriate money for buildings, but in violation of the state constitution made the expense for building operations a charge against the lands granted by Congress.

Under these financial conditions the development of the university was slow. The first chancellor was installed in office in the fall of 1849, and a year and a half afterwards the initial freshman class entered. In 1854 two graduates received the degree of bachelor of arts. But for some years the principal work of the university was conducted in the preparatory department.

This fact came near causing the ruin of the institution before it had really begun. Just before the civil war a storm of opposition broke upon the regents. The opposition was composed of many causes,—the rivalry of other towns with the capital, the jealousy of the other colleges, the outcry against extravagance in a time of business depression, the impatience with higher education in a new country; but the charge which, in the hands of a skilful state senator, gathered all the elements against

the university into one body, was that the institution was really using its resources for the support of a preparatory school where students were taught what they could learn in every district school in Wisconsin. A board to investigate the university was only prevented by a parliamentary technicality, but the regents made provision for the abolition of the preparatory school in five years, and the chancellor having also resigned, the opposition ceased.

For the next ten years the university remained without a head. Dr. Barnard, afterwards first United States Commissioner of Education, was too ill to perform his duties during his nominal chancellorship, and at his resignation the emptying of the college halls by the civil war caused the regents to refrain from electing a successor. In 1866 the legislature felt it necessary again, for the third time, to reorganize the institution. A president was now secured, but for some time presidential terms were short, and it was not until the administration of President John Bascom (Williams '48), which began in the latter seventies, that the university came to maturity.

In 1867 the legislature made its first appropriation, \$7000 for current expenses. This was indeed only the interest, at current rates, of the money taken from the endowment by the legislature a short time previously, but it indicated the beginning of a new policy. In 1870 the legislature made its first direct appropriation, \$50,000 for new buildings, and a few years later a tax levy of \$10,000 a year was laid for the benefit of the university. In 1876 this levy was turned from a specified sum to a percentage of one-tenth of a mill on each dollar of assessed valuation. The first assessment under this act produced \$42,000, and thenceforth the prosperity of the university was assured.

This percentage has been increased several times since that time, and has also grown largely with the growth of the state, until at present the University of Wisconsin is in receipt annually of more than a million dollars.

In 1868 a law school was established, with William F. Vilas, '58, as one of the professors. Since then other professional and graduate schools have been added. The university early established graduate fellowships and introduced the seminar method. In 1881 it began the issue of a series of university monographs, the value of which has been widely recognized; and the invention by Professor Babcock of his milk test has made the agricultural department known throughout the world.

The University of Wisconsin, supported liberally during the last thirty years by the state, has also received many benefactions from Wisconsin citizens. In 1908, upon the death of Colonel Vilas, former United States senator and cabinet officer, the university was made the residuary legatee of an estate which will eventually amount to many millions of dollars. One of the Vilas gifts will be ten professorships, each yielding an income of at least \$5000 a year.

The task of the university in articulating with the high schools of the state is simplified by the supervision of schools by the State Department of Public Instruction. The department divides the high schools of the state into two classes: First,

the free high schools, two hundred and sixty-eight in number, which receive state aid and which are inspected by the state inspector of high schools; second, the independent high schools, fourteen in number, which do not receive aid or supervision from the state. Each of these two hundred and eighty-two schools offers a four-year curriculum, there being only three three-year high schools in Wisconsin. The requirements for admission to the university, therefore, amounting to 14 units, are easily met by the high schools, and some margin is left to the schools for subjects not accepted by the university.

The university makes no provision for the admission of conditioned students, and, contrary to the practice of all other state universities, does not admit students who fail to present the full 14 units according to the specified requirements. Of these requirements, six units are definitely stated, and eight are elective from a group of subjects. The records of the past year at the university show that no student was admitted with any deficiency.

Data concerning the admission of students for 1908-09 are as follows:

	<i>Admitted on certificate</i>	<i>Partial examination</i>	<i>Entirely by examination</i>	<i>Total</i>
1. College of Letters and Science	424	2	7	433
2. College of Engineering	185	0	3	188
3. College of Agriculture	55	0	4	59

For admission to the law school the requirement is two years of study in college. The work of the law school is comparable to that of the best American schools.

The medical department of the University of Wisconsin offers only the first two years of instruction. It requires for entrance two years of college work, including physics, chemistry, biology, French and German. Not only is this standard high, but the work in the fundamental sciences in the department is conducted with energy and enthusiasm by a strong body of teachers. In fact, the adhesion to this policy of medical instruction is so unusual and so creditable to the standards and ideals of the university that they deserve special commendation. Nearly every state university of the middle west and the south has yielded at one time or another to the temptation to conduct a medical school not upon the basis of sound medical advancement, but upon the basis of institutional completeness. They have sought to accomplish this end in some cases by a weak medical school in a small city, in other cases by a low standard medical school in a distant city. Examples of one or the other of these practices are to be found among nearly all state universities. Those who have been responsible for the direction of the University of Wisconsin have courageously refused to yield to either of the temptations. Realizing that Madison was not suited for clinical teaching, they have refused to set up there a clinical establishment. They have with equal firmness resisted the pressure, even when exerted by the state legislature, to form a loose alliance with establishments in Milwaukee. Such action is as creditable to this great institution as it is rare.

On February 17, 1909, the regents of the University of Wisconsin passed a resolution requesting the admission of the university to the list of accepted institutions of the Foundation. The action of the regents was approved by a joint resolution of the legislature of Wisconsin, signed by Governor Davidson on March 27, 1909. A certified copy of this law having been transmitted by the private secretary of the governor, the University of Wisconsin, with the exception of its agricultural department, was admitted on June 4, 1909, to the retiring allowance system of the Carnegie Foundation.

THE UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI

Like other state universities west of the Alleghenies, the University of Missouri owes its beginning to the federal government. During the period when the admission of Missouri into the Union was a political question, Congress by two acts, one passed in 1818 and the other in 1820, granted to the territory two townships of land for the support of a "seminary of learning." These lands were offered for sale at a minimum price of two dollars an acre, and brought in only \$78,000. When this sum had grown by accumulation of interest to \$100,000 the legislature took into consideration the establishment of a university.

The laws creating the university and organizing a state system of education were enacted in February, 1839, and were largely the work of Henry S. Geyer, afterwards United States senator. Corresponding closely to the plan adopted in Michigan, the system was to consist of three correlated classes of institutions: the free elementary schools, colleges in part supported by the state, and a university teaching "in the highest degree every branch of knowledge." In 1843 that portion of the Geyer acts which provided for the government and partial support of academies and colleges was repealed. The present high schools of Missouri are a later development.

In the same month that the General Assembly enacted the Geyer legislation, it directed that the university should be located in one of the six central counties. The commissioners appointed by the act asked for bids from these counties, and after an active contest, Boone County, with a bid of \$117,900, was awarded the university at its county seat, Columbia. All classes contributed to this subscription, one man who could neither read nor write giving \$3000; other men sold their farms to pay subscriptions. On July 4, 1840, the corner-stone of the main building was laid, and on April 14 of the following year instruction in the academic work began. The first president was John H. Lathrop, Yale '19, afterwards first chancellor of the University of Wisconsin.

The Boone County subscription was exhausted by the site and the erection of buildings, the legislature refused any appropriation, and the university was forced for many years to subsist from the income of the federal "seminary fund" and from the tuition of students. But although the legislature declined any financial assistance, it was ready to exercise other legal prerogatives. Reorganization was chronic, and

twice the president and the entire faculty were swept out of office by legislative enactment. During the period of the civil war the university almost ceased to live. Eagerness to join either the United States or the Confederate armies left but a handful of students, and the curators suspended all salaries. President Lathrop, who had returned from his ten years' chancellorship in Wisconsin, and two faithful professors offered private instruction gratuitously, and the curators conferred degrees in 1862 upon students so instructed.

The passage on July 2, 1862, of the Morrill Act, donating 330,000 acres to Missouri for agricultural education, revived the hopes of the university, and in November, 1862, it was formally reopened. But there were still dark days. On account of political differences the constitutional convention of 1865 refused to recognize the university as the institution upon which the constitution of 1820 had endowed the early federal grants. In 1867, however, the legislature made the first appropriation for the university, \$10,000 for building purposes, and \$11,388 for expenses during the biennial period. In 1870, after a severe struggle, the college of agriculture was located at Columbia in organic connection with the university. To secure this action Boone County contributed \$90,000. By the constitution of 1875 the recognition of the university as the state university was placed in the organic law.

Since that period the University of Missouri has grown steadily. In 1867 a normal department was established. In 1871 the school of mines and metallurgy was opened at Rolla, in Phelps County. The university, in 1872, established a law school; in 1873 a medical school; in 1877 the engineering department, and in 1908, the department of journalism. The graduate school was authorized by the board of curators in 1896.

On January 9, 1892, the university was almost entirely destroyed by fire. The next General Assembly gave \$383,000 to repay the loss. In 1908 the total income derived from the state was \$514,000. The total income of the university from all sources for that year was \$648,000. The total enrolment of students was 2517.

The University of Missouri during the last twenty years has been the main influence in the state for the development of the secondary school system. The policy of the university for the upbuilding of the schools is indicated, first, by the entrance requirements of the university and the care with which they are enforced; and, second, by the restrictions under which the university has conducted the Teachers College High School.

The university does not articulate with any three-year high schools. Fifteen units are required for admission to the college of arts and sciences, the school of engineering, and the school of journalism. Conditions are permitted to the extent of two units, but these only in case the student is able to offer a certificate from an accredited or partially accredited four-year high school. It happens frequently that such certificates do not cover all of the specified subjects required for admission, which amount to seven units. The data for the admission of students into the freshman class for the year 1908-09 are as follows:

www.libtool.com.cn	<i>With 15 units or more</i>	<i>With 14 to 15 units</i>	<i>With 13 to 14 units</i>	<i>Special students</i>
College of Arts and Science	183	58	56	66
College of Engineering	65	25	35	19
School of Journalism	15	9	5	11

The basis of admission to these departments is almost entirely on certificates of graduation from Missouri high schools. The schools which are granted the privilege of certification are divided into two main groups, the accredited schools of which there are 137, and the partially accredited schools of which there are 38. All of these high schools offer courses four years in length. The committee on accredited schools of the university keeps a record of all students in academic studies for their first two years at the university, the data being arranged for the benefit of the committee. The information thus gained serves a useful purpose in checking up the results of the work of the high school inspector, and on the basis of these two means of examining the high schools the list of accredited schools is revised from time to time.

The second means by which the university has made evident its coöperation with the high schools of the state is the Teachers College High School. This high school is maintained by the university apart from the campus in the town of Columbia and now has an enrolment of over five hundred pupils. The purpose of maintaining this school is for the observation and practice thus afforded to the seniors and graduates in the school of education. The Teachers College High School is not a preparatory school in which conditioned students may make up their deficiencies, nor does it offer a short cut to the fulfilment of entrance requirements. There is no fusion whatever between the high school and the university; no student enrolled in the university is permitted to pursue a course in the high school, or *vice versa*. This practice of the University of Missouri is most unusual among colleges and universities which maintain preparatory departments. The relation is similar to that which exists between Columbia University and the Horace Mann School.

Until the end of the academic year 1908-09 the medical school of the University of Missouri consisted of a four-year course leading to the degree of doctor of medicine. The school had an excellent equipment for teaching the scientific branches of the first and second year, and the teachers were men who were not engaged in active practice, but who gave their entire time to instruction and investigation. There was a small clinical department for the instruction of the third and fourth years. The Foundation felt that this clinical department was not adequate to warrant the degree of doctor of medicine under present conditions, and declined to admit the university to the retiring allowance system until the problem of clinical facilities had been solved. Accordingly, the board of curators in June, 1909, abolished the clinical instruction in the medical school entirely, and directed that the university cease to confer the degree of doctor of medicine. All the funds available for the medical school the curators determined to concentrate in the first two years, upon the com-

pletion of which the student desiring to prosecute his medical studies to completion can avail himself of the clinical facilities offered by other medical schools.

Application for the admission of the University of Missouri to the Foundation was made by the board of curators on January 5, 1909. This application was approved by a joint resolution of the legislature of Missouri, signed by Governor Hadley on April 15, 1909. A certified copy of this act having been transmitted under the seal of the secretary of state, the University of Missouri, with the exception of the agricultural department, was admitted on September 30, 1909, to the retiring allowance system of the Foundation.

INSTITUTIONS WHICH RETIRED FROM THE ACCEPTED LIST

THE RANDOLPH-MACON WOMAN'S COLLEGE

The Randolph-Macon Woman's College was admitted to the Foundation in 1907. In making the application the president of the college assured the Foundation that while the college was in sympathetic relation with the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, it was independent of it in government, and its trustees passed a resolution certifying that in the election of trustees and officers no denominational test would be applied.

This action on the part of the college trustees raised a strong protest in the two Methodist conferences which had been directly interested in the Randolph-Macon system of colleges and preparatory schools, and it was urged by those who opposed the action that, while the board of trustees was legally independent, the conferences, as representing the denomination, ought to control the college through the choice of trustees. The discussion became a pronounced one and lasted for the larger part of two years.

In this discussion the Carnegie Foundation has had no part. The question whether Randolph-Macon Woman's College is to be governed by the conferences or whether it is to be governed by an independent board of trustees, choosing its members without denominational tests, is a matter wholly for the college and those associated with it to settle.

As a result of the prolonged discussion, a meeting was held in June last between the trustees of the college and the representatives of the conferences. At this meeting the trustees, after making clear the fact that they consider the Randolph-Macon colleges to be agencies of the church, adopted the following resolutions:

"Be it resolved that when a vacancy occurs in the Board of Trustees, such vacancy shall be filled by the election of this Board, but before such election the name of the person proposed to fill such vacancy shall be submitted, for approval, to the Conference within whose bounds such vacancy shall occur, and upon approval, he shall be elected by the Board."

The trustees also voted: "That a copy of these resolutions be sent by the Secretary to the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching with the request that if, in the opinion of the Trustees of that Foundation, the action so taken renders us ineligible to a place upon such Foundation, that our schools be at once withdrawn from the list of those participating in the benefits thereof."

This action was accepted by the executive committee of the Foundation as a friendly notification of the trustees that they desired to withdraw the Randolph-Macon Woman's College from the accepted list of institutions.

In accepting this notification of withdrawal of one of the Randolph-Macon colleges, the Foundation extends to both the college for men and the college for women, its heartiest good wishes and its hope for a vigorous and fruitful life. It hopes also that those who have attacked the college and its trustees may now turn heartily and vigorously to the support of both of these institutions. The trustees of the colleges have now definitely accepted a supervision from the conferences. There has never been a better opportunity to show that a body of Christian people interested in education can amply support the institutions which they prefer to control.

THE GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY

A second institution to retire from the list of accepted colleges and universities during the present fiscal year was the George Washington University. The circumstances of this action were as follows.

Under the rules of the Foundation a college, to be eligible, must have a productive endowment of \$200,000. In the case of the George Washington University the payment of current expenses has reduced the endowment far below this point.

The more serious question came, however, in the retirement against their own wishes of two professors, both men in active service and in the prime of life. These men were dismissed by the administration of the George Washington University on the ground that they could be pensioned by the Carnegie Foundation and their places could be supplied by younger men at lower salaries, thereby effecting a saving at a time of financial stress.

This action seemed to the executive committee to involve two assumptions so at variance with the purposes for which the Foundation was established as to call for protest. In the view of the executive committee, the arbitrary dismissal of a professor without charges was a violation of the principle of academic independence and freedom for which a college preëminently stands. In the second place, the executive committee felt obliged to protest against the assumption that the Carnegie Foundation could be used as a solution of the administrative problems or the financial embarrassments which may arise in the administration of the accepted colleges. If a college may retire a professor upon the Foundation because he differs with the policy of the administration or because the college can save money by employing

a cheaper man in his place, the Foundation would be a questionable aid to the American college professor. Such a treatment of the privileges of the Foundation seemed to the committee an unjustifiable use of an endowment intended for a totally different purpose.

The only effective protest against this action seemed to the committee to be the termination of the relation of the George Washington University as an accepted institution until such time as the committee could feel convinced that the ideals of its administration were more nearly in accord with those for which the Foundation stands. In accordance with the power given it under the by-laws, the committee, therefore, terminated this relation.

The committee wishes to make clear the fact that this action was not intended as a blow to the institution, but as an act in the interest of all teachers and all institutions, including the George Washington University itself. The committee would welcome the upbuilding of a strong institution of higher learning in Washington, and would gladly see men of means contribute generously to it. The committee believes, however, that the way to the development of such an institution is not to be found by expanding a college into a university framework in the expectation that the means will somehow be found to make the framework real. Such a process leads almost inevitably not only to low standards, but to financial embarrassment. The committee believes that its action will, in the long run, be recognized as taken in the interest of higher education in the District of Columbia, not to its disadvantage; and it desires to urge upon those who wish to aid education at the nation's capital a thoroughgoing study of the sort of institution which is needed there and the financial help which ought to be given to it.

Washington has been for years a ground of exploitation for educational rivalries. Beside the George Washington University there is the Georgetown University of the Jesuits (an old institution), the new Catholic University of America, and the abortive attempt of the Methodists. In addition, Washington is filled with paper colleges which deal in short cuts to degrees notwithstanding that their lists of trustees carry the names of men high in public life. The George Washington University has sought sincerely and honorably to unite, as far as this is possible, all those who believe in strong and useful educational work in the District of Columbia. The old Columbian University was a good college. Whether the effort to expand into a university without the necessary income was a wise policy is questionable. Without passing any opinion on the long-discussed plan for a national university, it is worth while to ask what sort of institution of higher learning in Washington would best serve the needs and aspirations of its youth in the matter of higher education.

This question cannot be answered out of hand. Washington has a population which is unique in its attitude toward education, arising out of the presence of two groups of citizens in proportions far beyond those to be found in most cities.

The first group consists of the families of army and navy officers, scientific work-

ers, officers and employees of the civil service, and the like. These families, composing as they do so large a proportion of the population, belong to the very class which is most intent on an education for their children and which can least afford to send their boys and girls away to college, except at great sacrifice. I have in mind families of officers in the scientific departments who, on the meagre income at their disposal, found the opportunity offered in the George Washington University invaluable. It is true, this same situation presents itself in every town and city, and it would be fatal to go about establishing colleges in the effort to meet the needs of individual families. Such cases can be met only by sacrifice on the part of parents and children. The question is, however, whether there is so large a group of such families in Washington as to justify the maintenance of a college.

The second group consists of young men serving for a longer or shorter time as secretaries of senators or representatives, clerks in the departments and in similar places. Many of these are alert, ambitious, and energetic, ready to devote afternoon and evening hours to hard work in order to get an education.

The presence of these two groups—families on modest means, but with educational ambitions, and young men on salaries with spare time for improvement—makes Washington an unusual educational field. The situation, while lending itself to a vigorous educational activity, carries with it peculiar temptations to superficiality in methods. Both these classes of people, particularly the latter, are looking for short cuts in education. It is this demand, together with the loose educational laws of the District, which enables the paper colleges of Washington—those which sell degrees on easy terms—to exist. The young man in the departments who seeks an education desires the shortest, easiest, and most direct path to a degree in engineering or education or medicine or law, so that he may earn money. Very rarely is he concerned for the breadth and liberality of training which prepares the way for the true teacher or lawyer or physician. However desirable it may be to furnish educational opportunities to these and other students, there can be no reason for affording these facilities on lower terms than other good colleges offer.

It is further to be noted that the desirability of maintaining a good college and engineering school in Washington is a very different thing from the question of maintaining a university with its law school and its medical school. In the professions, especially in medicine, there is no excuse, at this day of oversupply, for the maintenance of professional schools which rest on low standards, or which do not provide the facilities for professional teaching on the basis of the modern practice.

The real questions which face the George Washington University seem to me to be these: What sort of institution of higher learning is suited to the needs and population of the District of Columbia? How much of the work of such an institution can the George Washington University undertake with its present resources? Can a board of trustees be secured in Washington which will give time and thought to the work of an institution of higher learning?

Such a study of an educational field and its needs is most necessary in the present state of American education. Heretofore there has been little well considered effort to ascertain what sort of institution might best serve the needs of a given community. The great brood of colleges which have sprung up in the last thirty or forty years have generally been imitations of the older colleges. They have been organized on the principle of starting the college first and getting the students into it afterward. Even such a study of Washington as that to which I have alluded leaves out of consideration the fact that Washington has to-day the largest urban negro population in the world. It may well be that some form of industrial school in Washington is more important to civilization than to add one more agency for training engineers, doctors and lawyers. The whole matter is one to be approached from the standpoint of a thorough study of educational needs and educational means.

THE EXCHANGE OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS BETWEEN PRUSSIA AND THE UNITED STATES

THIS exchange has now been in operation for one year, the details for its arrangement in Prussia being in the hands of the Prussian Minister of Education, and in the United States in the hands of the president of the Carnegie Foundation. For the current year the following American teachers have been assigned to Prussian schools:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Institution from which he comes</i>	<i>Subjects in which he is a teacher</i>	<i>Gymnasium in Prussia</i>
HENRY M. SHUTE	Phillips Exeter Academy Exeter, New Hampshire	<i>French and German</i>	Oberrealschule I, Charlottenburg b. Berlin
WILLIAM S. LEARNED	Moses Brown School Providence, Rhode Island	<i>Greek and History</i>	Hohenzollernschule, Schöneberg b. Berlin
THOMAS FRANCIS TAYLOR	High School Orono, Maine	<i>French, Latin and Greek</i>	Viktoria-Gymnasium, Potsdam
RAYMOND B. McCLEWON	Grinnell College Grinnell, Iowa	<i>Mathematics</i>	Oberrealschule II, Cassel
CHARLES G. MONTROSS	High School Paterson, New Jersey	<i>German and English</i>	Oberrealschule, Halle a. S.
MURRAY F. EDWARDS	Virginia Military Institute Lexington, Virginia	<i>English, History, Spanish and Mathematics</i>	Realgymnasium, Harburg
JOHN PALMER DARNALL	Centre College Academy Danville, Kentucky	<i>English and History</i>	Oberrealschule, Danzig
CHARLES ADAMS PETERS	University of Idaho Moscow, Idaho	<i>Chemistry</i>	Friedrich Werdersche Oberrealschule, Berlin
WILLIAM A. AVERILL	High School Charleston, Illinois	<i>Mathematics and Physiography</i>	Realgymnasium, Grunewald b. Berlin

The following Prussian teachers have been assigned to American schools:

<i>Name</i>	<i>Gymnasium from which he comes</i>	<i>Subjects in which he is a teacher</i>	<i>Assignment in this country</i>
ADOLF LUHMANN	Frankfurt a. O.	<i>English, French and German</i>	The Hill School, Pottstown Pennsylvania
WILLY KIEPERT	Rixdorf	<i>English, French and German</i>	University High School University of Chicago Chicago, Illinois
ALBERT SIEBERT	Reinickendorf b. Berlin	<i>English, French and German</i>	Yale University New Haven, Connecticut
FRITZ HELLMUTH	Leer	<i>English, French and German</i>	Phillips Academy Andover, Massachusetts
KARL STEITZ	Cassel	<i>English, French and German</i>	Horace Mann School New York City
JOHANN HEDDERGOTT	Duren	<i>English, French and Religion</i>	Phillips Exeter Academy Exeter, New Hampshire

I wish again to call attention to the fact that American secondary schools and those who are in charge of them have not yet begun to appreciate, in my judgment, the benefits to be had from this exchange. One can scarcely imagine a better means of stirring the life of the American high school than to receive into its corps of teachers for a year a well trained teacher from a German *gymnasium*, nor can one imagine any experience any more likely to quicken the life of a secondary school than to have its head master or one of its teachers spend a corresponding time in a German *gymnasium*. Notwithstanding these evident advantages, the exchange still presents some singular anomalies. There are many American teachers ready to pay their expenses in order to have this opportunity, but very few American secondary schools are ready to go to any expense in order to enable the teacher to take advantage of the opportunity. Furthermore, very few secondary schools have as yet been willing to accept a Prussian teacher. It has been hard to overcome the idea that these teachers take the place of regular teachers of German, whereas the plan carefully provides that such a teacher is an additional influence in the school, dealing with the teaching of the language from an entirely different point of view and bringing also the help of the experience of a well conducted school in another country. I hope that those who are at the head of secondary schools will more heartily second the effort to obtain the benefits of this exchange. The cost to an American school is so slight as to cut but a small figure in the plan, but hitherto American schools have been slow to receive a Prussian teacher or to help their own teachers to the opportunity. On the other hand, Prussian schools are glad to take American teachers for a year and to give such teachers full access to their schools and full share in the associations which the school life brings. There are, therefore, many openings for the American teacher who may volunteer, but hitherto there have been few openings in the United States for the German teachers who are ready to come. I wish again to commend

this matter to secondary school teachers and to ask that a more general trial of the plan may be had.

One of the features of this exchange is that the American teachers assigned each year to Prussian schools report to the Foundation concerning their year's work. These reports cover a number of topics, but include at least the following:

1. The reception which the teacher meets in Prussia and the opportunity given him to observe the school;
2. The character of the teaching which was done;
3. A comparison in a general way between the Prussian *gymnasium* and our high school;
4. The preparation of the Prussian teacher, his compensation and social standing.

The reports which have been made through the last year are of so interesting a character that they would make, if published in full, extremely fruitful reading for American teachers. There is unanimous agreement in the reports with regard to the hospitality and good fellowship extended to visiting teachers by their colleagues in the various gymnasia. The following extract from the report of Mr. William A. Averill, who taught at the *Realgymnasium* in Cassel, will illustrate this situation:

"However formal and ceremonial the bearing of the Prussian may be toward his countryman, fellow citizen, or neighbor, he certainly throws the doors of welcome hospitality wide open to the foreigner; receives, entertains, and continues to befriend him with cordiality and consideration, the extent of which is as surprising as it is universal and delightful. This most friendly attitude is neither occasional, superficial, nor temporary; on the contrary, I found on every hand, and from the beginning, such courtesy and obliging disposition, alike from the school janitor to the Minister at Berlin, that I often wondered how my German friend was faring in America. Officially and socially my reception was equally warm and thoroughgoing. The various classes, conferences of the faculty, introduction to principals, official records, pupils' note-books, schemes of instruction, disciplinary methods, and the like, were freely and immediately placed at my disposal. In a word, the opportunities given me to observe the schools were in every field not only all that could be desired, but much more than could possibly be embraced. My social reception was beyond all expectation, including not only that at the hands of the teaching profession, but also the hospitality of the general social clubs, winter sport, tennis and boating clubs, the innumerable *Stammtische*, and above all the truly charming friendliness of the German home."

As to the nature of the teaching service which is carried on in Prussian schools, it was carefully stated in the original announcement that exchange teachers took no part in the formal instruction of the institution to which they are assigned. They do no part of the work of a regular teacher. The idea is that the visiting teacher is to give instruction in conversation in his own language in an informal manner for not more than two hours a day, his classes being generally small groups of the upper

classes who wish to perfect themselves in the language of the teacher. This conversational teaching covers a wide range, including the manners and customs of the teacher's home, the family life, the conditions of public life, the geographical features of the teacher's country, and the like. The actual experience encountered in carrying out this program may be indicated by an extract from the report of one of the teachers of last year:

"I was engaged in two high schools, institutions with about 500 pupils each, one a *Realgymnasium*, and the other an *Oberrealschule*, in a city of 150,000. The time given to teaching was six hours a week in each school. The character of this work was threefold,—(1) conversation, (2) class 'visiting' (*das Hospitieren*), (3) substitute teaching (*in Vertretung*). The conversation lessons were optional on the part of the pupils, were limited to the three higher classes, were given to groups of four to nine members, and were of fifty minutes' duration. The writer gave nine such lessons each week. The topics of conversation were generally extremely simple, and were selected from the boys' daily life and such current public events as were suited to narration and discussion of an elementary character. The chief work consisted in persuading the German boy to overcome his reticence and in combating the universal and permanent tendency of each group to allow one overcourageous member to carry on all the conversation. With the smaller groups the hour was frequently spent walking along a street or in a park. 'Visiting' classes consisted of reading English selections to the classes and questioning the pupils in English in the presence of the English teacher. All the English classes were visited in turn in this manner throughout the year on an average of three each week. In the senior classes (*Ober Prima*) the writer occasionally spoke for the entire hour on some topic of American life. By far the most interesting and valuable experience in the whole year was the substitute teaching in the absence of the Prussian instructor, on which occasions I was always courteously given free rein in regard to topic and method, and could close the Prussian textbook, feel the pulse of the German school-boy, find where his thoughts lay, and study young Germany on his own school bench. Who can break through the reserve and reticence surrounding this strange product of a more strange environment, and win his confidence, has before him, in the inner personality of the Prussian *Schüler*, a fascinating, composite picture in which the history, the culture, the wars, the poverty, the present military glory, and the future hopes of his country are vividly reflected."

Another teacher, Mr. Howard W. Church, working in the *Oberrealschule* at Bochüm, writes:

"My work in the school consisted almost entirely in the instruction of classes from twenty to thirty in number, going one hour a week to each class. Only during the last month did I have two classes per week of six or eight for conversation. This was necessary because of the crowded class schedule. It was impossible to arrange hours with the pupils outside of the regular class periods. In the Prussian *Oberrealschule*, English is studied during the last six years of the course. The first two years are spent on an excellent reader, *Dubislaw und*

Bock, and Scott's *Tales of a Grandfather*; third year, Irving's *Sketch-Book* is read; fourth year, Dickens and a play of Shakespeare; in the last two years Macaulay's *Essays*, Shakespeare, and Stuart Mill. These are the books read in Bochüm, but this does not apply to all Prussian schools. In all of the classes I took the reader as the basis of my work, and talked about such chapters as 'Duke of Wellington,' 'Lord Nelson,' 'British Empire,' 'Settlement in America,' 'Boston Tea Party.' Of course it was necessary to model my talks according to the age of the class in question. In addition to the above I spoke in the upper classes about the lives of Shakespeare, Dickens, Irving, etc., the theatre at Shakespeare's time, the contents of other works by these authors not read in the class, the history and geography of the United States, social, school and college life in the United States. My last hour was a two hours' talk about New York, with illustrations thrown on a screen by means of an apparatus built by some of the pupils. At election time I also described our presidential election. The pupils in all the classes learned to understand almost all that I said. Owing to the size of the classes, conversation was to a great extent impossible. In the upper classes too, the pupils showed more or less embarrassment and disliked to make mistakes and much preferred to listen to me. As the result of my work, however, I can say that the pupils learned to understand spoken English, and also have a much better understanding of America."

The comparative studies which these American high school teachers make of the Prussian school system as compared with ours are most interesting and are of special significance to the secondary school teacher in America. Perhaps the first characteristic which impressed these teachers is the fact that in the Prussian school system the endeavor to train different kinds of students is accomplished by a wide variety in the types of schools rather than by a large election in the several kinds of training in a single school. The Prussians have differentiated their school system, each class of school aiming at a well defined purpose.

The plan in Prussia is to make some group of studies form the central thread upon which the whole work of a given school is hung. By this means the energies of a school are not dissipated in many directions, and students receive prolonged concentrated training upon a few well chosen subjects. The American teachers in Prussia last year were strongly impressed with this fact, and give this feature of the Prussian system as a reason why German boys regard their school studies with more earnestness than is generally the case in our schools. It also explains, in the opinion of these teachers, why parents in Germany are more interested in the success of their children in school than is the case with us. With regard to this Mr. Lyman G. Smith, teaching in the *Oberrealschule* in Rixdorf, near Berlin, writes as follows:

"The coöperation of the parents is remarkable, and a large element in the success of the schools. Parents do not visit classes and criticize the work, but are in frequent conference, not only with directors, but also with teachers. Parents take great responsibility in the education of their children, and are sometimes

even overzealous in their efforts to force the children to greater diligence in performing school tasks. An American child once explained to his teacher that he always prepared his piano lesson first, because his father had to pay for that. The Prussian parent pays fees in the public higher schools, and the inference is clear."

The American teachers expressed, however, the opinion that this conception of a public school system has also its disadvantages, chief among which is that concentration upon a certain group of subjects lends itself to specialization too early in life; and in the second place, in the smaller cities, which can afford few varieties of schools, there is an unsatisfied demand for a school offering preparation for life. From this point of view the American school meets a wider demand, but perhaps a less definite one.

From the point of view of good teaching these American teachers were impressed by the character of the instruction in the schools in which they took part. The teachers in these schools are experts in teaching, — men of university training who look upon teaching as their life work, not as a stepping-stone to something else. Such men teach with the thoroughness and vigor which men are apt to give to their profession, and this reacts upon the pupil. Mr. James A. Campbell, who completed a year at the *Sachsenhäuser Oberrealschule* of Frankfurt, discusses this matter in the following terms:

"The attitude of the German teacher toward his profession and his pupils is worthy of study and imitation. In the first place, teaching is his life work, not a stepping-stone to some other profession or to a business, as it often is with us. Second, he is thoroughly grounded and trained for his work. In other words, he is an expert and has that dignity and professional pride which characterize such men the world over. Third, he handles his pupils with a professional air and scientific skill, just as a physician does his patients, or a captain his soldiers. Fourth, his position in the school is secure against the attacks of the disgruntled, and social position is assured him by his profession. Fifth, he is under no constraint to be a model to his pupils. Good personal habits and common decency are taken for granted, but the teacher is not expected to be different from the doctor, lawyer, merchant or official in his amusements and diversions. This absence of hypocrisy, refraining from doing things merely because he is a teacher, and the fact that he lives the life of the normal man in the community, increases the respect of the boys for him and is a far healthier state of affairs than where, for example, the teacher must not smoke, however much he would like to, 'because it would have a bad effect on the boys.' I believe the boys have more respect for the man who smokes than for the man who wants to smoke, but dares not (where people can see him) because the school board has decreed that he must be a model. The same principle applies to other habits and amusements. Why should the standard for the teacher be different from that of the representative men in the community? Sixth, although the German teacher is after a raise in salary, and is getting it too, he is not much fretted over his finances because a modest pension awaits him and his family when teaching days are

past. So far as my observation went this financial security does not tend to fill the profession with drones,—the examining boards prevent that,—nor to make drones of those who are already in; rather it leaves the men unworried and free to give their best energies to their work.”

These American teachers call attention in the most energetic way to the fact that the American boy of fourteen who enters the high school is far less advanced than the German boy of the same age. Mr. Smith, from whom a quotation has already been made, refers to this subject in the following words:

“But it is not only in continuity of policy and training that the German schools reach their high state of efficiency. Special work is begun early, though less than three per cent of the children in Berlin attend the kindergarten; the early natural education is acquired at home. The child who enters school at six or seven makes rapid progress, and at nine or ten he is reading and writing his own language, has learned considerable geography and mathematics, and has begun the study of French or Latin. He has a start which the American boy can never make up, for when the latter reaches the high school at fourteen years of age the German boy of the same age is at least two or three years farther advanced. While this fact has so often been pointed out, no remedy has yet been successfully applied to cure this weakness in the American system of education. The following tables and diagrams illustrate the difference of the teaching plans of the systems of the two countries.”

TABLE I

(The proportion of time in school hours assigned to various required subjects. The examples are taken from the programs of typical schools, and there is quite strict conformity to types, though there are some variations as in the case of the reform *gymnasium*. Numbers indicate percentage of time and not actual hours.)

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Gymnasium</i>	<i>Realgymnasium</i>	<i>Oberrealschule</i>
Religion	6.2	6.2	6.2
German	8.5	9.1	11.1
Ancient Languages	34.2	16.	
Modern Languages	6.6	15.3	23.5
History	5.6	5.5	5.8
Geography	3.	3.6	4.5
Mathematics	11.2	13.7	15.3
Science	6.	9.4	11.8
Physical Culture	8.9	8.8	8.8
Drawing	2.6	5.2	5.2
Singing	5.9	5.9	5.8
Handwriting	1.3	1.3	2.
Handiwork			

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TABLE II

(High school subjects which are begun in Prussia before the American high school age, number of hours per week, and the approximately corresponding position in the American high school system. The subject of mathematics includes algebra and geometry, but not elementary arithmetic; science includes botany, zoölogy, physics and chemistry.)

<i>Approximate Age</i>	<i>Grammar School</i>					<i>High School</i>			
	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
	<i>German Grade</i>	VI	V	IV	UIII	OIII	UII	OII	UI
<i>American Grade</i>	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII
GYMNASIUM									
Latin	8	8	8	8	8	7	7	7	7
Greek				6	6	6	6	6	6
French			4	2	2	3	3	3	3
Mathematics			4	3	3	4	4	4	4
Science	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
REALGYMNASIUM									
Latin	8	8	7	5	5	4	4	4	4
French	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
English			3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Mathematics			4	5	5	5	5	5	5
Science	2	2	2	2	2	4	5	5	5
OBERREALSCHULE									
French	6	6	6	6	6	5	4	4	4
English				5	4	4	4	4	4
Mathematics			6	6	5	5	5	5	5
Science	2	2	2	2	4	6	6	6	6

With regard to these tables a number of the teachers emphasize their dissatisfaction with the American high school on account of the fact that its curriculum represents the attempt to crowd eight or nine years of work into four years. Under such a régime the younger pupils become discouraged and those who survive the process have a superficial training. These teachers unite in suggesting that a survey of the German school methods would be of service to American teachers in suggesting a better distribution of subjects in order to save time and in order also to render the instruction in these subjects effective.

These reports take up in detail the different studies, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, foreign languages, geography, the sciences, and also such other more professional subjects as drawing, music, and the like, and show how these have been worked into

a consistent system. While these facts have been brought out by other students of the two systems of education, the statements made by these teachers are specially interesting as coming from a body of men engaged in the actual work of teaching and who have had service in both kinds of schools.

Two of these subjects may be referred to, even in so brief a summary as this,—the subject of athletic sports and of moral instruction. One teacher writes:

“English and American sport, viewed from a distance, excites the interest of many German educators. Those who are more familiar with the evils of football and other games of questionable value for physical culture cannot help seeing many advantages in the German system. Since the days when Jahn and his followers first awakened an interest in physical education, the German nation as a whole has become truly athletic in the best sense of the term, for there has been genuine and rational physical training for both sexes and for all ages. In the training of the teachers of gymnastics, the frequency of the periods for exercise, in the hourly recesses, in the out-of-door play, in the variety of the athletic games, and in the completeness of the equipment of the exercise halls, Prussian boys have opportunities for physical education which is rarely seen in America. Interscholastic contests are not common, involve individuals rather than groups, are rational tests of skill, courage, or endurance, and especially are not great public spectacles. A boy who has learned twenty-one different ball games has acquired a physical tone and alertness which very few American boys possess. The game of *Schlagball* daily in the playground is a delightful relaxation from the confinement of the classroom. In apparatus work German boys would probably leave American boys about three years behind. Indeed, while these pupils in the higher schools often come from the less robust element in the population, while the boys attend school six days in the week, start at least an hour earlier than the American boys, breakfast on a roll or two, and study hard out of school, yet the physical condition and general health appear to be of good average.”

With regard to moral training the same teacher writes as follows:

“The general moral tone is noticeably high. Classes left for long periods without teachers conduct themselves well. Lying, petty thieving, and various forms of cheating, so distressingly prevalent in many large city schools in America, are much less prevalent in Prussian schools. Many reasons are apparent. Home training averages higher, books are not furnished at public expense, and the right of ownership is respected. Stationery and other supplies are not provided free, and economy is learned. There is not that spirit of wastefulness at public expense, too often a step toward public theft. Corruption in athletics, which has so often weakened the moral conditions and lowered the standards of American institutions, does not prevail in Prussia.

“It is by no means impossible to attribute the real cause of good moral standards to definite instruction in morals. . . . The teachers treat the subject with breadth and good sense. The children early become familiar with the stirring tales of Old Testament history, and the smaller boys often take real delight in the subject. For the older boys, the study of the Bible forms a practical basis

for the discussion of ethical theories. With the subsiding of denominational sensitiveness, it may possibly happen that there may be a revival of such use of the Bible in our American public schools. Indeed, it has already appeared in the examination plan of the College Entrance Examination Board. The possibility of the prevalence of such a movement is remote, however, and by no means urgent; but the responsibility of American teachers for better morals and manners in their pupils is a duty which cannot conscientiously be avoided. In German schools, good manners prevail, and there is a pleasant atmosphere of politeness and forbearance. Girls are taught to courtesy, and boys are instructed by the teachers of gymnastics to know the proper form of lifting their hats. Pupils instantly rise and come to order when a teacher enters the classroom. While the law in America recognizes the duty of teachers to give moral instruction, and the statutes enumerate at length the virtues, yet it has often become a dead letter, or regarded as a 'blue law.' The Moral Education Congress and other signs indicate a revival of interest in ethical teaching."

It would be impossible in a brief summary of the reports of these teachers to bring out all the interesting observations which they make. Only a few more may be mentioned. One of the teachers writes as follows:

"In the thickly populated continent of Europe, strong government means the preservation of national integrity. Every German boy early learns that weakness in government is an element of danger, and in his school life he unconsciously falls into the line of patriotic coöperation. Moreover, the government takes a keen and genuine interest in the schools, and the sincere purpose of the higher officials cannot be questioned. The state legislatures in the United States have failed to give problems of education the same thoughtful consideration which they have received in the German states. While the Prussian educational authorities have been gradually raising standards and wisely improving the system, clumsy experiments in self-government have nearly wrecked some American colleges, and children, with and without the advice of parents and teachers, have been allowed to seize the reins and run away with school programs in their immature attempts to make their own courses of study."

Contrary to our conception of the prevalence of red tape in the Prussian system of instruction, the same teacher writes:

"The success of the German higher schools may be partly attributed to the excellence of the simple methods of administration. Examinations are very infrequent, though there is much written work; official tests are rare except for military exemption for graduation. Classes are divided into Easter and into Michaelmas divisions, corresponding nominally to the time of entrance, but practically giving the advantage of finer classification and allowing promotion of pupils at more frequent intervals. Vacations and daily recesses are shorter and more frequent, but there is no essential difference in the length of the school year. Reports are sent home twice a term and are written in special blank-books and not on cards, thus forming one complete record for the entire school life of the pupil. Parents are summoned by teachers for consultation as occasion requires. Tardiness is infrequent. Each class is required to keep a journal in

which daily items are written, including a record of the work accomplished, names of delinquents, and other notes, and must be signed by the teacher each hour. To be 'written in the class book' is usually considered a great disgrace, and much dreaded by the more conscientious pupils. The printed reports issued annually by the schools are well worthy of imitation. They are rather uniform in size and in simplicity, forty or fifty pages, about 20 × 30 centimeters, and contain the school program, a list of the recent graduates, records of noteworthy events of the school year, a directory of teachers, a list of authorized textbooks, important regulations, notices to parents, list of holidays, and are often supplemented by printed dissertations. These latter are written by teachers in the school; they usually relate to some pedagogical question or are concerned with the teacher's special subject, and occasionally they are written in a foreign language."

For the benefit of teachers considering a year of service in Prussia under this exchange, I quote the following paragraphs from the report of Dr. John Franklin Brown, who last year accepted an appointment to the *Oberrealschule der Franckesche Stiftungen* at Halle a. S.

"1. The exchange affords an opportunity for the teachers sent to acquire an accurate speaking knowledge of the language of the foreign country and for the pupils to secure valuable practice in the conversational use of the language which they are studying. Germany, France and England have very justly placed a high value on these advantages for several years. They are equally important for the United States.

"2. It is an effective means for the development of a better acquaintance and a mutual understanding between the peoples of the two nations,—an extremely important result.

"3. It affords an opportunity for those who are primarily interested in the problems of educational theory and practice, to observe at close range the workings of another school system which is much better organized than our own. College teachers of education, school superintendents, high school principals, and experienced teachers should find the exchange very valuable pedagogically. It is probably true that only a few things can be profitably taken over from the Prussian system,—nothing without careful adaptation to American conditions,—but those few things are so important that they are abundantly worthy of study.

"4. Students of education and secondary school teachers of the languages, history, and mathematics, will gain most from the experience. I was often told by teachers of the sciences that Germany has much to learn from the United States concerning the work in their subjects, and I am disposed to believe the judgment is correct. On the other hand, the value of the exchange for the American teacher of modern languages can scarcely be overestimated.

"5. The inexperienced teacher should *not* go. A basis for comparison gained through actual experience is needed to steady one's judgment concerning the defects and merits in both the foreign and the home work. The wide-awake, experienced teacher is in a position to bring much greater returns to the cause of education in the home land.

"6. It is desirable that the teacher should remain a full year.

"7. It is important that the exchange teacher should have considerable knowledge of the German language. He need not speak it fluently or even correctly, but he should be able to make himself understood and to understand when one person is speaking directly to him, and he should be willing to *try* to speak in the foreign language. He will find opportunity to use English in conversation with those who wish to perfect themselves in the use of that language, but the German people generally like to be addressed in their own tongue. Ability to speak the language readily both gives the foreigner greater prestige from the start and enables him to gather information from which he would otherwise be cut off.

"8. The exchange teacher should inform himself somewhat before going abroad concerning Prussian social and official customs. Especially should he observe that he is expected to make the first formal call upon those with whom he desires to be associated and particularly upon his official superiors. He should be prepared to take the initiative in making acquaintances and in securing the information and the opportunities he desires. He is introduced to his colleagues in a body, not to each individually, and he is then at liberty to make further advances as he may choose. My own experience leads me to believe that if he proceeds tactfully he will find ready and hearty response.

"9. The exchange teacher is more than a mere teacher of language. In a foreign land and among strange people he stands as the official representative of his nation and his countrymen. It is not necessary that he should try to observe all the formal proprieties that the Germans observe among themselves. That would be impossible and it is not expected. But it is exceedingly important that in all his personal and official relations he should be a tactful, courteous gentleman. He is likely to observe much in Prussian life that does not agree with his own personal views or with American practice, and there will be found abundant opportunity to exercise the virtues of a broad-minded tolerance and adaptability."

The account which I have here given has dealt almost wholly with the experience and observations of the American teachers assigned to Prussian schools. I wish to add a brief statement concerning the Prussians who have under this exchange come to American schools.

These teachers were selected with great care. They have in every case completed their university studies, have passed their state examination, and are actively occupied in the public high school service.

At the conclusion of the past year I asked of the head of each school which had accepted a Prussian teacher whether he had proved efficient and capable and whether he had fitted in an effective way into the teaching staff and whether the arrangement had helped to freshen and improve the teaching of modern languages.

The replies to these inquiries form a recognition of the exchange system which is most encouraging. In every instance these men were reported as being admirably qualified for the work of teaching. Their scholarship was unquestioned and their

influence, not only upon the teaching of German, but upon the study of language and the conduct of the school, was endorsed as most helpful.

For the care and good judgment with which Geheimrat Dr. Karl Reinhart has selected the teachers sent to America, I beg to express my hearty appreciation. The exchange is still in its beginning. It will need to be tested for some years before its actual value can be fully appraised. Dr. Reinhart has promised to send me at a later date a memorandum of the opinions and the views of the Prussians concerning American schools. I hope it may be possible to present the statements of these teachers for the use of American teachers.

STUDIES IN PROGRESS

IN accordance with the conception that the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is an educational agency, the trustees have authorized the study and investigation by the Foundation of various problems in American education. Some of these studies are nearing completion and will appear soon after the publication of this report.

In the last annual report attention was called to the need for adequate financial statements on the part of colleges and universities and to the desirability of some uniformity in these reports. Following out this matter, the president has, in coöperation with the treasurers and financial officers of a number of institutions, sought to devise a form of financial statement which would be convenient, simple, and yet reveal the significant items of expenditure. The results of this inquiry will be printed as a bulletin as soon as the Foundation can be sure that a solution has been reached which is practicable and acceptable to the financial officers of collegiate institutions.

At the last annual meeting the president was authorized to incur certain expenditures in making special studies of professional schools, and particularly of schools of law and of medicine. This work has been prosecuted through the year. It is hoped that the results of these studies may begin to appear in the spring of 1910.

A large number of suggestions have been made to the Foundation to undertake an administrative study of some of the larger universities. Such a task seemed to be outside of the present purpose of the Foundation, but it was deemed desirable to give such aid as the Foundation could to some administrative study, from the standpoint of the outsider, of at least a limited problem in university administration. The Foundation has therefore directed a thoroughgoing study of the administration of the department of physics of a number of institutions. The work has been carried out by a trained engineer whose business is the investigation of the efficiency of manufacturing establishments. It presents the point of view of the outside business critic and, it is believed, will be particularly helpful by reason of that fact. This report is now in press.

The problem of agricultural education is one which has been so complicated with

university organization as to render some study of this matter necessary. In addition, a half century has now elapsed since the incorporation of the agricultural and mechanical colleges under the first Morrill Act. It has therefore seemed to the officers of the Foundation an opportune time to bring together a complete statement of the legislation by which this aid to education was obtained, as well as of the methods of expenditure and of organization which the various states adopted in dealing with the sums of money placed in their hands by the general government. This study will be ready for publication by the spring of 1910.

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PART II
THE WORKING OF THE RULES FOR RETIREMENT

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THE ACTUARIAL SIDE OF THE RETIRING ALLOWANCE SYSTEM

THE Foundation has now had four years of history. It seems, therefore, desirable to examine as critically as possible the experience gained in this interval. It will be remembered that in each report emphasis has been laid upon the fact that the income of the Foundation could sustain permanently a satisfactory retiring allowance system for only a limited number of teachers and that it was desirable to determine at as early a date as practicable the approximate load the income could carry; or, put in another way, to determine the number of teachers as well as the number of institutions which the Foundation might safely include in the retiring allowance system.

For the sake of continuity I venture to state in some detail the process through which the trustees have gone.

When the first \$10,000,000, with its income of \$500,000, was placed in the hands of the trustees, the problem before them presented a variety of factors, some of which were of an actuarial nature, but mainly the factors were of an educational and social character.

From the actuarial standpoint the problem could be stated in several ways. Perhaps the most simple way to state it is in the following terms. Assuming one thousand college professors at an average age of forty-seven, assuming three-fourths of them to have wives, assuming an average pension of \$1000, and assuming that surviving widows would receive half of the pension which their husbands had earned, what would be the probable sum necessary to set aside in order to meet the annuities which would finally result if every professor retired at sixty-five?

To answer this question one must assume a mortality table and a rate of interest. Teachers have a better expectation of life than that indicated in the American mortality tables, and it was therefore necessary to use some table which represented more nearly the expectation of life in the case of preferred risks. The best authority available for this purpose is the McClintock tables, prepared by Mr. Emory McClintock, actuary of the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York. These tables were made up by taking into consideration all the standard annuity tables in use in 1899, such as Finlayson's table (which was for many years the standard in Great Britain), the results of the French companies, and also the experience of the New York Life and the Mutual Life Insurance companies in the writing of annuities. The lives of such annuitants form very much the same class of risks which those of teachers offer. This table was adopted as the New York standard for annuities after the recent insurance investigation, the law going into effect January 1, 1907. The difference in the life expectation, as computed by the American mortality tables and by the McClintock tables, is shown in the following comparisons.

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EXPECTATION OF LIFE

<i>Age</i>	<i>American Mortality Tables</i>	<i>McClintock's Tables</i>
30	35.33 years	35.19 years
35	31.78	31.61
40	28.18	28.06
45	24.54	24.56
50	20.91	21.11
55	17.40	17.97
60	14.10	14.65
65	11.10	11.76
70	8.48	9.18
75	6.27	6.96
80	4.39	5.13
85	2.77	3.67

Another assumption which must be made is the rate of interest. The rate prescribed by law, upon which life insurance companies base their calculations, is $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Assuming this extreme case, the actuaries estimated that a capital of \$10,000,000 would permanently carry such a load as that indicated for a body of approximately three thousand teachers. Some teachers will, however, die before reaching sixty-five; others will resign; but, most important of all, the bulk of teachers who reach the age of sixty-five will prefer to teach for some years longer, and the Foundation receives five per cent instead of three and a half. All of these considerations indicate that under such conditions as hold in practice, such a capital would supply an average allowance of \$1500 a year to such retired teachers and their widows as are likely to be furnished by a body of three thousand professors. This estimate was given in the First Annual Report.

On the other hand, there are numerous facts on the other side of the argument which will occur to everyone. Such an assumption provides for less than one hundred institutions (or, with the sixteen millions now in the control of the Foundation, for perhaps one hundred and twenty institutions, of which about one half have now been admitted). It cannot provide for all the colleges of America, and this fact has been emphasized in each annual report. In addition, we have taken no account of the growth of the institutions of learning. If we assume that Harvard and Columbia are to have in the next generation faculties of two thousand instead of two hundred, if we assume that salaries are to be greatly increased, and if we assume that every professor is to claim his retiring allowance the moment it is available to him under the rules, it is clear that the large endowment of the Foundation will be inadequate for even those institutions which have been admitted.

The truth is, however, that the matter is only in a partial sense an actuary's problem; all these assumptions do not detract from the fact that a well informed and conscientious body of trustees can, with the amount of income now in their control

(some \$800,000), maintain a satisfactory system of retiring allowances for perhaps five thousand teachers, distributed in about one hundred and twenty institutions. To do this is mainly a problem of common sense and fairness, not one of actuarial computation.

This is the practical advice which the trustees received from the actuaries themselves at the beginning of their administration. "The problem is," they said, "only partly actuarial. No man can possibly predict what will happen under any assumed method of retirement. Frame your rules according to your judgment of what will best serve the interests of the teachers, within the general estimates indicated. Reserve carefully the power to amend your rules of retirement as circumstances may require, and go forward to acquire such experience as will enable you to make permanent and final rules."

This is the course which the trustees pursued; there was really no other open to them. They adopted certain rules for the granting of retiring allowances, always accompanying the statement of the rules with the following provision: "The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching retains the power to alter these rules in such manner as experience may indicate as desirable for the benefit of the whole body of teachers." This was accompanied by the additional statement that a pension once granted would not be affected by a subsequent change in the rules.

THE ADOPTION OF THE PRESENT RULES

It was after such conference with expert actuaries that the present rules were framed. At that time a smaller number of institutions seemed likely to be eligible than has since proved to be the case. The state institutions have within the last year been made eligible, and many colleges which at that time had denominational restrictions of a legal sort have since removed them and have become thereby eligible for consideration. The most the trustees hoped for at that time was to establish retiring allowances in enough institutions to bring in the retiring allowance plan as a part of American college administration. As stated in the First Annual Report, pages 80, 81: "It is estimated that an income of \$500,000 will maintain a system of retiring allowances, upon the scale adopted, for something over three thousand professors. This would correspond to the admission of somewhere between one hundred and one hundred and twenty institutions to the accepted list. . . . The establishment of an effective system of retiring allowances in one hundred institutions in the United States and Canada will contribute vastly more to the introduction of the retiring pay principle in American education than the maintenance of a charitable fund for a much larger number of institutions. Once the principle is established, and in so large a number of institutions as this, it will be necessary for institutions which for any reason are not eligible to this list to provide such retiring allowances

for professors from other sources. This estimate, though only an approximate one, brings squarely before the trustees the consideration of the probable limit of the fund itself."

Much thought was given to the framing of such rules as might best serve the interests of teachers. The underlying principles which seemed to be clear were these:

1. The retiring allowance must come to the teacher as a right and in accordance with fixed rules.
2. It should form a fair proportion of his active pay and a larger proportion of small salaries than of large ones, a condition which was rendered fair by paying the same proportion of the first thousand dollars of active pay to all.
3. The retiring allowance should be available at some fixed age and after some stated period of service.
4. Some account should be taken of disability.
5. The retiring allowance system should embrace in its provisions the widows of teachers who under the rules had become eligible to retiring allowances.

The question of the minimum limit at which retirement on the ground of age should be permitted was one concerning which there was wide difference of opinion. The two ages most often suggested to the trustees were sixty-five and seventy. A number of teachers argued that seventy was early enough for a fixed date for retirement. More than one teacher of prominence urged that a teacher was at his best between sixty-five and seventy (these were all men past sixty-five). On the whole, however, it seemed clear that if the right to a retiring allowance did not mature till the age of seventy, a large part of the benefit of the endowment would be lost. The trustees therefore fixed upon sixty-five as a reasonable minimum limit upon which retirement on the ground of age could be claimed, leaving the question of the continuance of a teacher's service beyond that period to be determined entirely by the college and himself. The rule which resulted from this action is as follows:

RULE 1. Retirement on the Basis of Age. Any person sixty-five years of age, who has had not less than fifteen years of service as a professor and who is at the time a professor in an accepted institution, shall be entitled to an annual retiring allowance, computed as follows:

- (a) For an active pay of twelve hundred dollars or less, an allowance of one thousand dollars, provided no retiring allowance shall exceed ninety per cent of the active pay.
- (b) For an active pay greater than twelve hundred dollars the retiring allowance shall equal one thousand dollars, increased by fifty dollars for each one hundred dollars of active pay in excess of twelve hundred dollars.
- (c) No retiring allowance shall exceed four thousand dollars.

Computed by the formula: $R = \frac{A}{2} + 400$, where R = annual retiring allowance, and A = active pay.

It seemed extremely desirable that a retiring allowance system should include some provision for teachers who, after long service, have become broken in health or who by physical infirmity, such as the loss of hearing, are incapacitated for their calling. Among the most pathetic cases in the profession of the teacher and those most embarrassing to the colleges themselves have been the ones in which teachers have, after faithful service, broken in health and found themselves with approaching age practically helpless. In consequence the trustees adopted a second rule providing for retirement on the ground of service, intended to meet such cases as those referred to, together with the rare cases which now and then arise when a man of real genius as a scholar might prefer to accept a smaller pension and devote himself exclusively to productive work in science or literature. The trustees realized that retirement below the age of sixty-five threw upon the Foundation a larger load than the retirement of one above that age. It was believed, however, that the number of teachers who would avail themselves of retirement under such conditions would be confined almost exclusively to those who were physically impaired, and that the load coming from this provision would be small. The second rule, providing for retirement on the ground of service, is as follows:

RULE 2. Retirement on the Basis of Service. Any person who has had a service of twenty-five years as a professor, and who is at the time a professor in an accepted institution, shall be entitled to a retiring allowance computed as follows:

(a) For an active pay of twelve hundred dollars or less, a retiring allowance of eight hundred dollars, provided that no retiring allowance shall exceed eighty per cent of the active pay.

(b) For an active pay greater than twelve hundred dollars, the retiring allowance shall equal eight hundred dollars, increased by forty dollars for each one hundred dollars in excess of twelve hundred dollars.

(c) For each additional year of service above twenty-five, the retiring allowance shall be increased by one per cent of the active pay.

(d) No retiring allowance shall exceed four thousand dollars.

Computed by the formula: $R = \frac{A}{100}(b + 15) + 800$, where R = retiring allowance, A = active pay, and b = number of years of service.

The second rule thus became a complex one, covering service and disability. In addition, the executive committee has, by the authority of the trustees, granted occasional temporary disability allowances, usually for one or two years' duration, to enable a teacher who has broken down to regain health.

A third rule provided for a pension for the widow of any teacher who, either on the ground of age or service, was entitled to a retiring allowance.

These rules have now been in operation four years. During this period an enormous amount of correspondence has gone on between the Foundation and teachers

and college officers in all parts of America. The rules have been criticized and examined from every point of view. It seems, therefore, an opportune moment to review the experience of the Foundation in their administration and to reexamine the whole matter in the light of this experience. Before proceeding to this examination, however, some light will be thrown on the question by the testimony of the teachers who have accepted retiring allowances. I have written to each teacher who is receiving a retiring allowance and asked a frank statement of the reasons for his retirement. It is a part of the invariable policy of the Carnegie Foundation to place in the hands of those interested in education the fullest details respecting the Foundation and its administration. In accordance with that policy the nature of these replies is indicated in the following summary.

THE REASONS WHY COLLEGE TEACHERS RETIRE

THE inquiries just referred to were addressed to teachers on the retired list, with the understanding that individual letters were not to be quoted. The summary which follows represents, therefore, only such classification of the replies as is possible without direct quotation. The correspondence makes an interesting contribution to the history of this matter, and throws light on the varied conditions of college administration in small and large institutions and in various parts of the continent.

Letters were addressed to two hundred and eleven teachers on the retired list, asking for the purposes of the Foundation a brief statement of the reasons for retirement. Replies were received in practically every case, and these were, with few exceptions, sufficiently definite to give a clear idea of the motives, or the combination of motives, which induced the writer to retire from active service.

For the sake of clearness and in order to help our discussion of the rules, it is best to consider these replies in two groups: first, the replies of those who retired after reaching the age of sixty-five under Rule 1; second, the replies of those who retired below the age of sixty-five under Rule 2.

Some one hundred and sixty-five letters were received from professors who had retired at sixty-five or over. These men can be divided as to age into two groups approximately equal in number, the one group retiring at ages between sixty-five and seventy, and the other retiring above seventy. The size of this second group is, however, probably disproportionately high because previous to the establishment of the Foundation many teachers continued in service longer than they would under present conditions.

Of the whole number retiring on reaching sixty-five or later, twenty-seven, or nearly one-sixth, state that their retirement was distasteful to them. They were, in their judgment, in full vigor of mind and body, but either on account of some statu-

tory provision of their college, or by reason of the advice or wish of the college administration, they felt their retirement to be necessary.

In addition to the twenty-seven men who state frankly that they retired against their own wishes and judgment, there is a considerable group who indicate that they were induced to ask for a retiring allowance through a foreboding on the subject of age. They retired not on account of pressure from the administration or on account of a statutory provision, but because they wished to anticipate the formal suggestion of such action.

Various personal considerations were given for retirement of a sort which do not permit classification. For example, a few professors in small colleges felt the burden of too much elementary teaching and the hopelessness of relief in view of the poverty of their colleges. Under such circumstances, they preferred to retire altogether from teaching. A small group retired out of dissatisfaction with the attitude of their colleges toward their subject; one teacher thought that a wise husbandry of the college's resources demanded the abolition of his department. Recent revolutionary changes in science caused five men between sixty-five and seventy-five to conclude that younger men were more capable of adapting classroom methods to the new discoveries. Two frankly stated that their scholarship seemed to them to belong to an older generation, and it was too late to begin the mastery of new methods.

The largest group—fifty-two in all, nearly one third of those retiring on the ground of age—wrote in a serene and cheerful spirit. In the main the tenor of their letters was to the effect that they had discharged their duties to their profession, and with growing bodily infirmities they were glad to retire from active duties as teachers to some long-deferred study or research. These men wrote with grateful hearts concerning the opportunities for work which their profession had given them, and with equal gratitude for the provision which enabled them to look forward to a quiet and useful old age. If any man is discouraged over the outlook of the American scholar, he will get new faith by reading the letters of these veterans, some of whom had filled professors' chairs for sixty years.

From teachers who had retired under the provision of Rule 2 and who, on retirement, were below the age of sixty-five, forty-two letters were received. Of these only twelve had retired on the ground of impaired health,—four (ages fifty-nine, sixty-one, sixty-three, sixty-four) suffering from defective eyesight or hearing, and eight (ages fifty-four, fifty-six, fifty-eight, fifty-eight, sixty-one, sixty-two, sixty-four, sixty-four) having developed some malady or incurred a general breakdown in health. Of the remaining thirty, ten (ages two each at fifty-two, fifty-four, sixty-two, sixty-three, and sixty-four) retired on account of some college complication, five of them stating explicitly that their resignations were requested by the presidents of their respective institutions or that they were dismissed.

Twenty still remain to be accounted for. These were in good health and in their

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own judgments capable of teaching satisfactorily. Five (ages fifty-five, sixty, sixty, sixty, sixty-three) desired to engage in the work of research or other professional labor, with the additional reason in one case of dissatisfaction with the attitude of the student body and in another the fear that the college might prefer retirement. Two (ages sixty and sixty-three) took advantage of the opportunity for family reasons; two (ages sixty-one and sixty-three) thought that younger colleagues ought to have the chance to occupy the positions they held; five (ages fifty-one, fifty-seven, fifty-eight, sixty, sixty-two) desired to engage in business; six (ages fifty-one, fifty-four, fifty-six, sixty, sixty-two, and sixty-three) desired recreation and relief from the recitation and lecture room.

The statements by these two groups of men are most illuminating in respect to the actual working of such provisions as are incorporated in the present rules.

THE WORKING OF THE RULES FOR RETIREMENT AND THEIR BETTERMENT

THE following table shows in condensed form the financial load which has resulted in accepted institutions under the operation of the rules as they have hitherto stood. The statement is confined to the accepted institutions for two reasons,—first, the teachers in these institutions are the only teachers who have had free opportunity to avail themselves of the retiring allowance provisions; and secondly, these institutions contain the only body of teachers for whom the Foundation has accepted permanent responsibility.

COST OF RETIREMENTS AT THE AGE OF SIXTY-FIVE OR OVER

Year	No. of Accepted Institutions	No. of Teachers in Faculties	No. of Retired Teachers on Roll	Average Age at Retirement	Annual Grant of Retiring Allowances	Number of Widows Pensioned	Annual Grant of Widows' Pensions	Total Annual Grant at End of Year	Deductions through Deaths	Annual Load at End of Year
1905-6 ¹	52	2,261	34	71.4	\$ 52,365	3	\$2,700	\$ 55,065		\$ 55,065
1906-7	55	2,309	64	70.7	99,160	5	4,340	103,500	\$13,710	89,790
1907-8	62	2,444	85	70.7	136,365	5	4,020	144,405	3,680	140,525
1908-9	67	2,966	129	70.6	214,250	11	7,995	222,245	1,940	220,305

¹ June to October, 1906.

COST OF RETIREMENTS AT AGES BELOW SIXTY-FIVE ON BASIS OF SERVICE

Year	No. of Teachers Retired below 65	Average Age at Retirement	Annual Grant of Retiring Allowances	No. of Widows Pensioned	Annual Grant of Widows' Pensions	Total Annual Grant at End of Year	Deductions through Deaths	Annual Load at End of Year
1905-6 ¹	5	62	\$ 9,395	1	\$ 600	\$ 9,995		\$ 9,995
1906-7	15	60.3	25,810	6	5,125	30,935	\$2,190	28,745
1907-8	26	59	39,460	14	13,205	52,665	600	52,065
1908-9	40	58.6	62,355	21	20,390	82,745	4,745	78,000

ALLOWANCES FOR TEMPORARY DISABILITY

Year	Number	Amount
1905-6 ¹	8	\$11,675
1906-7	10	14,215
1907-8	14	22,615
1908-9	17	28,235

The discussion of these statistics will be most profitable if the two groups are again considered separately.

(A) *Retirements on the Ground of Age (Rule 1)*

On the whole the results obtained under the use of this rule present a satisfactory outcome. Teachers who have passed the minimum age at which a retiring allowance may be claimed have apparently availed themselves of the opportunity to retire in much the manner in which the trustees had anticipated.

With regard to the objection voiced by a considerable group that they were retired while still capable and eager to discharge their duties, a word may be said. The question of compulsory retirement at a fixed age is one which has been much discussed. Several institutions have adopted such a rule, the age of retirement being fixed at ages ranging from sixty-five to seventy years.² In the case of any individual the active service may be lengthened by action of the college trustees. The question whether compulsory retirement is a wise provision in an institution of learning is one upon which something may be said on both sides.

It is clear that the artificial closing of the work of a great teacher is a matter to be regretted, and in the active professions of the world sixty-five, or even sixty-eight,

¹ June to October, 1906.

² The following institutions have adopted more or less definite regulations for the retirement of professors upon reaching a given age. In most instances provision is made for the extension of the age limit by the trustees: University of Cincinnati, 65 years; Cornell University, 65; Dartmouth College, 70; Harvard University, 60 voluntary, 66 compulsory; Grinnell College, 70; Leland Stanford Junior University, 65; Marietta College, 65; Oberlin College, 65 voluntary, 68 compulsory; New York University, 65; University of Minnesota, 66; University of Pittsburgh, 65 (tacit understanding, but no rule); Swarthmore College, 65; Vassar College, 65 voluntary, 70 compulsory; Williams College, 65 voluntary, 68 compulsory; Yale University, 65 voluntary.

is a period in which many men do their best work. In trade, in politics, and in the profession of the law the years between sixty-five and seventy are those in which men assume successfully the heaviest responsibilities. Viscount Morley at seventy-one is framing a new plan of government for an empire of three hundred million people. Chief Justice Marshall guided the deliberations of the Supreme Court of the United States with unabated vigor until his death at eighty. Lord Palmerston first became Prime Minister of England in his sixty-ninth year. Von Moltke was seventy at the beginning of the Franco-Prussian War. It would have been a great loss to scholarship to have retired at sixty-five Bunsen, who taught at Heidelberg until he was seventy-eight; or Von Ranke, who taught at Berlin until he was seventy-six; or Von Ranke's colleague, Mommsen, who was still teaching when he died at the age of eighty-six. The University of Glasgow would have suffered if it had not permitted Lord Kelvin to occupy his professorship until his voluntary retirement at seventy-five, and the University of Jena is a stronger institution because Ernst Haeckel is still professor of zoölogy there, in his seventy-sixth year. Lord Acton was sixty-one before he began his eleven years' fruitful service in the chair of modern history at Cambridge, and Edward A. Freeman was the same age when he accepted the corresponding chair at Oxford. Upon Freeman's death in his seventieth year he was succeeded by James Anthony Froude, then seventy-four. It is also evident that the fixing of an arbitrary limit causes some apprehension to men approaching that period.

All this, however, does not affect the fact that notwithstanding the presence of notable service by men of seventy and upward, the average man of ability does not attain to such achievement, and that the average men are inclined to cling to their regular duties and to their official positions after their efficiency is seriously impaired. It is not easy for the individual to differentiate between those motives which are egoistic and those which are not. Few men at seventy are critical judges of their own efficiency. While, therefore, a fixed and invariable rule for the retirement of a teacher may not be the best solution, it is clear that the college professor at such an age ought to be willing to leave the question of retirement, in some measure at least, to the judgment of others. As our American institutions are organized, it is not easy to keep men in position who render partial service.

There is another view of retirement voiced by some of these teachers which seems worth notice, and that is the fear of lack of some agreeable and useful way of spending one's time if regular teaching duties are given up. We are accustomed to this attitude in the case of the business man, but one scarcely expects to find a scholar at a loss to know how to entertain himself in old age. The situation suggests, at least, that college professors do not always have sufficiently broad foundations for their scholarship nor adequate connection with varied and enduring human interests.

Only one serious criticism has been made of this rule. It is urged that the rule does injustice to the profession of the teacher by excluding service in the grade of instructor from counting toward the earning of a retiring allowance. It is urged that the po-

sition of instructor¹ is one calling for high professional training; that it belongs to the recognized professional grades of university work; that the work of an instructor in one of the large universities is often of a higher order and involves greater responsibility than that of an assistant professor in a small college; and finally that the actual work of teaching in the larger institutions has for the last two decades fallen in increasing measure upon the shoulders of the instructor. These criticisms are valid ones. There is a further effect noticeable under the present rules the tendency of which is bad, namely, the pressure upon colleges to appoint men to faculty places in order that the term of service may begin to count toward a pension. This pressure is natural; it is difficult to withstand; and it is almost wholly bad. Advancement in salary and eligibility to a pension ought not to depend on promotion to an assistant professorship. I therefore recommend the amendment of this rule so as to include recognition of the service of the teacher in the grade of instructor.

The practical question which arises is: "How much ought the term of service to be lengthened in order to include service as an instructor?"

This question is not easy to answer, since the statistics of ten and twenty years ago do not fit the experience of to-day. Men were appointed twenty years ago to instructorships at an earlier age than to-day. In fact, the place of instructor is to-day a different one. Furthermore, in the smaller colleges service in this grade lasts usually only a short time, while in the large universities it may last five or ten years, and in some cases, and those of worthy and useful teachers, it lasts indefinitely. The experience of a group of the smaller strong colleges² indicates that instructors are appointed between the ages of twenty-three and twenty-six, on the average at twenty-four and seven-tenths. On the other hand, the experience of a group of the stronger universities³ indicates that instructors in these institutions begin their service between the ages of twenty-five and thirty, or on the average at twenty-eight. Each group is geographically well distributed. On the whole, it would be fair to assume that a man who is appointed an instructor at twenty-five will either be an assistant professor at thirty-five or earlier, or will remain permanently an instructor. If the rule for retirement on the basis of age is therefore amended so as to read: "Any person sixty-five years of age who has had not less than fifteen years' service as a professor or not less than twenty-five years' service as an instructor, and who is at the time either a professor or an instructor in an accepted institution," etc., the service of a teacher in the grade of instructor will be fully recognized. I recommend this change.

(B) *Retirements under Rule 2*

The outcome of an unrestricted opportunity to retire after twenty-five years of service as a professor is evident on the financial side in the fact that under this provision

¹ The position of lecturer in Canadian universities corresponds to that of the instructor in the United States.

² Haverford, Grinnell, University of the South, Bowdoin, Cornell (Iowa), Beloit, Allegheny, Lawrence, Lake Forest, Rose Polytechnic, Hobart, Knox.

³ Columbia, Harvard, Wisconsin, Leland Stanford Junior, Toronto, Northwestern, Iowa, Indiana.

annual pensions to the amount of \$78,000 have resulted in three years, an amount greater than twenty-five per cent of the whole cost of the retiring allowances of those retired under Rule 1. This is a result far beyond the anticipations.

The expectation that this rule would be taken advantage of almost wholly on the ground of disabilities has proved to be ill founded. Of the forty teachers retired on this basis only twelve retired for physical reasons. The average age of those thus retiring was sixty and three-tenths, while twenty-eight retired on other grounds at an average age of fifty-nine years. In the first group were only five below sixty, the minimum age being fifty-four; in the second there were eleven below sixty, three retiring at the age of fifty-four, two at the age of fifty-two, and two at the age of fifty-one.

These retirements indicate that when a teacher has reached the age when he may claim the minimum pension, he may be put under pressure to retire whether he desires retirement or not. It has been urged that one of the benefits of the Foundation consists in the opportunity thus afforded the colleges to get rid of teachers who have worn out their usefulness or who have lost interest. Whatever there may be in this claim, it is evident that it is more than counterbalanced by the opportunity which is thus opened to bring pressure to bear on the teacher, or by the tendency of the teacher assured of a retiring allowance to become ultra-critical toward the administration. The situation is not a good one either from the standpoint of academic freedom or of academic contentment. Furthermore, it is no part of the function of a retiring allowance system to care for the disagreements of college life. These are problems of administration.

The idea that the Foundation could indirectly give aid to research by the retirement below the age of sixty-five of some man devoted to research rather than teaching is also one which, on the whole, seems elusive. The correspondence outside of these letters indicates that a number of teachers have persuaded themselves that they are specially intended for research. Some of these have a small income which, even with the minimum pension, promises a safe, if not ample, support. Others are "tired of teaching." It seems that this rule offers too large a temptation to certain qualities of universal human nature. Furthermore, the object of the Carnegie Foundation is not the encouragement of research (desirable as that may be), nor is it concerned with the transfer of men from the calling of the teacher to some other. Its object is the advancement of teaching. Experience seems to prove that the attainment of that object lies in providing security and protection to those who remain in that calling. It seems to me that Rule 2 in its present form is a mistake. As I am in the main responsible for this, I have sought in the light of experience and through consultations with numbers of teachers to ascertain what changes can at this time fairly and wisely be made. I have also sought to obtain the opinion of actuaries and others as to the general results of service pensions. The literature of this subject is meagre, but the testimony from all sources seems to indicate that, while a disability

pension is a helpful feature of retirement plans, a service pension ought to rest on the basis not of a minimum but of a maximum service. It is clear also from correspondence and consultations with teachers that the features of the present service pension which are most highly valued are the protection to the teacher after twenty-five years of service in case of disability, and the protection of his widow in the case of death. These two features should, in my judgment, be preserved. I recommend, therefore, that Rule 2 be amended in such manner that retirement at the end of twenty-five years of service, and before the age of sixty-five, be available to a teacher only in case of disability so serious as to unfit him, as shown by a medical examination, for the work of a teacher. Such a change will command the approval of the great body of devoted and able teachers and is in accordance with the spirit of the rules as originally framed.¹

One other feature of the administration of these rules has proven difficult and in some respects unsatisfactory. This is the retiring of professors in the schools of medicine and law.

It is important that the medical school and the law school become more closely parts of the general system of education and more truly related to universities and university ideals. This result is coming, and an increasing number of teachers in schools of both medicine and law are giving their entire time to teaching and to investigation. At the present time, however, the bulk of teachers of law and of medicine are practitioners. The presence of such men in the schools is desirable, but the retiring allowance system was never intended for them. As matters now stand, however, it is difficult to determine where the line should be drawn in the cases of such professors. The rule provides at present that "teachers in professional departments of universities, whose principal work is outside the profession of teaching, are not included." This does not seem definite enough. The question as to whether the practice or the teaching is the principal work of a teacher of law or of medicine remains to a considerable extent a question of individual estimate. It seems desirable to amend this rule in such manner as to make the intent more definite.

In the use of the privileges of the Foundation under such rules it ought not to be forgot by presidents, trustees, and teachers that this noble gift for education was intended to serve primarily the faithful and efficient teacher, not to solve the difficulties of administration. The president of an accepted institution should keep in mind the purposes of the Foundation as well as the wants of his college and the requests of individuals. To throw upon the Foundation a load it was not intended to carry is to limit later the service it was originally designed to fulfil.

¹ The changes here recommended by the president of the Foundation were adopted by the trustees at their annual meeting on November 17, 1909, and the rules as so amended and as they are now effective will be found in an appendix to this report.

THE TEACHER'S OBLIGATIONS IN LIFE INSURANCE

IN the last annual report I sought to emphasize the distinction between the protection afforded by a retiring allowance system, such as the Carnegie Foundation maintains, and that which a man buys in life insurance. During the past year a large correspondence in this matter has developed, which seems to indicate that there is still some confusion among teachers with regard to these two matters, and to indicate also that teachers give as a rule little consideration to their own obligations and their own opportunities in the matter of insuring their lives. A large number of requests have come to the Foundation, urging that the retiring allowance be extended so as to include teachers who have served for twenty, fifteen, or even ten years, in order that their families might have protection in the event of the death of the breadwinner. These suggestions have arisen in nearly all cases from the pathetic circumstances attending the unexpected death of a teacher and the hardships imposed upon his family thereby. A considerable number of cases have been presented in which teachers earning salaries of three thousand, four thousand, and even five thousand dollars, were carrying either no insurance at all or sums wholly out of proportion to their obligations and to their income.)

Life insurance is a commodity which the individual member of society purchases, whereby his personal death risk is assumed by an organization whose risks are so widely distributed that they can be safely assumed to follow the law of probabilities. The cost of this commodity in civilized society is ascertainable within narrow limits of error, and the commodity is one, therefore, which ought to be bought at the cost of the risk plus the reasonable cost of the business. For example, the net cost of this risk for any individual for one year at the age of thirty is, according to the experience of the American mortality tables, \$8.14, and it is the assumption of this risk which the individual pays for when he insures his life at that age for one year. The cost to him, however, will be this net risk plus such other expenses as are incurred in the management, advertising, agencies, and profits. There is perhaps no other commodity in the market whose exact value can be so accurately ascertained. Few other commodities are so universally needed by civilized men, and certainly no other commodity has been the victim of such manipulation and exploitation. Its cost is still higher in most civilized countries than it ought to be.

One of the chief reasons of the high cost is the lack of acquaintance, even among intelligent men, with their duties and their interests in the purchase of the commodity. Comparatively few men purchase life insurance until they have been urged, and in many cases cajoled, by an insurance agent. The cost of this army of agents and the commissions which have been paid to them have been largely responsible for the abnormal cost of life insurance, and yet it would still seem to be true that no company can grow to large proportions except by the solicitations of agents.

This result seems to be borne out by the history of two companies, the Equitable

of London and the Equitable of New York. The former, which was the first life insurance company in England to be established upon a scientific basis, was founded in 1762, and has never sold insurance in any other way than over its own counter. It employs no agents, and deals only with those individuals who know that they want life insurance and are willing to go after it and buy it. After one hundred and forty-seven years the annual number of new policies sold (1907) was 226, aggregating insurance for \$1,200,000. As, however, its first rates, based upon the Northampton tables of mortality were excessive, it was early able to accumulate a surplus, and with its conservative management it now has assets of the value of \$25,000,000. The Equitable Life Assurance Society of New York was founded in 1859. It has availed itself of advertising methods to an extent to which perhaps no other life insurance organization has done. In 1907 its new policies numbered 21,228, representing insurance of \$75,000,000. Its assets the same year were valued at \$446,000,000.

Life insurance in all civilized countries has run through a period of exploitation. In older countries, like England, this was reached a century ago. In the United States it may fairly be assumed that this stage has now passed and that life insurance as a commodity may now be purchased at fairly reasonable rates, if the individual will use ordinary judgment in its purchase and not trust himself wholly to the solicitations of the first agent who approaches him. Under these circumstances life insurance becomes almost a necessity to any individual working on a salary, who has no invested capital. The teacher is in nearly all cases a professional man without other income, and his obligation to protect his family by reasonable life insurance is one of the first duties to be performed.

This duty is not affected by the establishment of a retiring allowance system such as that of the Carnegie Foundation. This retiring allowance system undertakes only to provide additional security to men who have had long service as teachers, and to give to their families a protection which has been earned by this service. It does not touch at all the day-by-day risk which every man must assume during the first twenty-five or thirty years of his professional work as a teacher. The obligation to insure is as insistent upon a teacher who participates in such a retiring allowance as upon one who does not.

The practical question which arises in the case of each man who has reasoned thus far is, What life insurance should I carry? or, to put it in another way, What part of my income should I devote to the protection of my family from the risk of my death? Assuming that a teacher has a salary of \$2000 or \$3000 or \$5000, what is a reasonable insurance for him to carry?

Conservative business men, on salaries comparable to those of teachers, have ordinarily met this problem with much more thought than the teacher, partly because the obligations of a business life compel them to look the risk of death more directly in the face. While they have no fixed rule, there is a common and widely held estimate that a man on salary should invest ten per cent of his income in insurance. Upon

this theory a clerk (who is) thirty-five years old and has an income of \$2000 would carry from \$7000 to \$8000 insurance; a cashier at \$3000 salary would carry approximately \$10,000 insurance; while a manager at the same age earning \$5000 a year would carry approximately \$15,000 of insurance.

While these sums would be appropriate in the case of the teacher, many other considerations enter which greatly modify the decision. These have been admirably set forth by Professor Guido Marx of Leland Stanford University in a paper published in the *Atlantic Monthly*. This paper gives the results of a most illuminating study of the expenses of a college professor at an assumed salary of \$3000, extending over a period of nine years, which brings out clearly the difference between the obligations which a man in business is called upon to meet, and the similar demands made upon the professor on a corresponding salary. It is to be remembered that the college professor must maintain a social standing, must buy books, must attend scientific societies, must have a home of culture and refinement, if he is to do his best work. To do all this on a salary of \$2000, or even of \$5000, calls, as Professor Marx clearly shows, for the most rigid economy. In the presence of so many demands the obligation for life insurance must take its place with the others.

The man who goes over the items in the statement of Professor Marx will feel inclined to conclude with him that upon a salary of \$3000 the teacher must choose between celibacy with the ordinary opportunities for culture and enjoyment, or marriage with the most rigid economy. Under such conditions the teacher must decide from the demands made upon him the amount of insurance which he can carry, but he should do this with the full understanding that life insurance in some proportion to his income is one of the first obligations which he must shoulder as the head of a family. No class of men appear to undertake the responsibilities of a family with less thought of the future than do college professors.

Many suggestions have come from teachers and from others to the Foundation, urging that a system of life insurance be instituted in connection with the work of the Foundation, with the idea of furnishing insurance at approximately the cost of the life risk. There are legal complications in such a plan which make it difficult, but aside from these there seems to be no well grounded reason why such a problem may not successfully be worked out by an ordinary life insurance association, working under the insurance laws and doing business in the ordinary way.

The attempt to furnish such insurance has led to many disasters, due in the main to lack of observance of business methods and of the ordinary laws of life insurance risks. The efforts of fraternal orders and others to create an organization for furnishing cheaper insurance to selected groups of men has also often ended in failure. The fact remains, however, that men who belong to a selected class of risks pay too high a sum for insurance when purchased from a company which bases its estimates on the ordinary life and which carries a large load due to advertising and agents' commissions.

The college professor belongs to a preferred class of risks. Dr. Charles L. Greene in a work entitled *Medical Examination for Life Insurance* gives the following comparative mortality figures for different professions :

Clergymen	5.33
Teachers	6.04
Medical practitioners	9.66
Law clerks	10.70
Brewers	14.27
File-makers	18.10

The most successful example of an attempt to offer cheaper life insurance to a selected class of risks is perhaps that of the Presbyterian Ministers' Fund. This society is the first life insurance institution organized in America, and was established in 1759. Its liabilities are about \$3,000,000, and its surplus nearly \$500,000. Its policy contracts excel in liberality those of any other company, offering greater surrender values, lower interest upon loans to policy-holders, lower initial premiums, and lower subsequent net costs. Its policies probably represent as economical a charge for the commodity of life insurance as is likely to be reached. The comparison between the cost of insurance in this company and the cost in well known life insurance companies is shown in the following table.

COMPARISON OF THE ANNUAL NET COST OF A \$1000 POLICY
IN VARIOUS COMPANIES

NET COST OF PARTICIPATING COMPANIES						
Kind of Policy	Age	Equitable New York	Mutual Life New York	New England Mutual Boston	Mutual Benefit Newark	Connecticut Mutual Hartford
Ordinary Life	25	19.20	18.36	17.55	17.89	17.10
	35	25.26	24.05	23.45	23.53	22.70
	45	35.66	34.04	33.65	33.32	32.90
	55	54.61	52.75	52.10	50.87	49.10
Twenty Payment Life	25	29.03	26.47	26.00	27.65	27.28
	35	34.98	32.23	32.00	33.18	32.73
	45	44.90	41.38	41.35	41.69	40.94
	55	60.29	57.74	57.35	56.51	54.78
Twenty Year Endowment	25	46.78	44.62	44.95	45.27	42.93
	35	48.40	46.13	46.50	46.52	43.90
	45	52.56	50.13	50.50	51.00	46.91
	55	63.91	61.57	61.35	60.11	56.12

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		NET COST OF PARTICIPATING COMPANIES			RATES NON-PARTICIPATING COMPANIES	
Kind of Policy	Age	Northwestern Mutual Chicago	Presbyterian Ministers' Fund Philadelphia	Prudential	Travelers'	Metro-politan
Ordinary Life	25	16.50	15.25	17.91	17.91	17.37
	35	21.95	20.46	22.70	22.70	22.90
	45	31.22	29.19	32.32	32.32	32.60
	55	47.65	44.26	51.19	51.19	50.75
Twenty Payment Life	25	26.50	24.62	24.59	24.78	25.35
	35	31.84	29.62	30.00	30.14	30.83
	45	39.90	37.05	38.55	38.56	39.45
	55	53.43	49.01	53.81	54.54	54.79
Twenty Year Endowment	25	44.58	40.89	42.13	42.56	43.05
	35	45.52	41.63	43.42	43.83	44.13
	45	48.42	43.97	47.01	47.28	47.39
	55	57.13	51.04	57.51	57.69	57.43

This table shows the net rates of six companies which write participating policies. They are taken from Flitcraft's publication and show the net cost of insurance of issues of 1906, after deducting the so-called dividend. (The term "dividend" is misleading as used in life insurance. There is no such thing as a dividend to the policyholder in the sense in which that word is ordinarily used. The term covers in life insurance simply a rebate which the company returns to the policy-holders out of its profits drawn from various sources, — the use of mortality tables higher than the actual experience, savings from agents' fees, higher interest than the rate assumed, etc.) The table shows also the rates in three companies which write non-participating policies and which ought, therefore, to be comparable with the net rates of the other companies. It will be noted that the net rates of the larger companies are fairly comparable, dividends being based on the three per cent reserve basis except in the case of the New England Mutual, which uses the three and one half per cent reserve basis. The table presents comparative figures for the three forms of policies ordinarily purchased,—the straight life policy, the policy payable upon death but paid for in twenty payments, and the twenty year endowment policy.

It will be noted that these rates show considerable variations even among companies using the same reserve basis. Conservative companies, like the Connecticut Mutual and the Northwestern Mutual, offer insurance at from five to ten per cent cheaper than the Equitable and the Mutual Life. The Presbyterian Ministers' Fund, on the other hand, shows a reduction of from five to fifteen per cent upon the first-mentioned companies. Its rates probably represent the minimum which is likely to be reached in conservative insurance management, and form some fair basis of comparison with the charges of the large life insurance companies. The comparison is

satisfactory in showing that the man on modest salary may to-day buy insurance in strong companies at rates which are not excessive.

An inspection of this table serves to emphasize the fact that the man on salary with a dependent family should insure as early in life as may be and in some proportion to his income. As I have stated, the practical questions for the college teacher are, first, How much insurance should I carry in view of other obligations? and, second, What kind of insurance should I purchase? The first question is one which the individual alone can answer. Most men on salaries wait too long to insure and then let their families take a greater risk than they ought to incur. The second question should also be answered by the teacher himself. Any member of a profession intelligent as that of the teacher should have enough knowledge of ordinary business to understand the reasons for life insurance, and enough acquaintance with the methods of insurance to select the kind of policy desired rather than let the life insurance agent decide for him. The agent will recommend in nearly every case the policy which yields him the best commission. This was the reason for the vast increase in endowment policies in comparison with ordinary life policies. For this reason the stronger and more conservative insurance companies now arrange to have the commissions on all policies practically the same.

The essential distinction between endowment policies and ordinary life policies is that the first is an investment combined with certain insurance features; the second is simply a commodity which the insured purchases whereby the risk upon his life to the extent of his policy is carried by a company. The man who is without a family, or who has an independent income, can afford to buy an endowment policy. It is a safe but not remunerative form of investment. But the man who is seeking protection for his family against the losses which his death would occasion does well to purchase the straight commodity at the lowest price consistent with security, for he can thus purchase a larger security against death risk for the same investment. Straight life insurance in some form is, therefore, the commodity which the teacher under ordinary circumstances wishes to buy.

This is offered by the insurance companies in three or four forms.

The most common is the ordinary life policy under which upon the payment of a fixed annual sum during life a specified amount is paid at death. This is the simplest and most direct form of insurance.

A variation of this policy is the "twenty payment" life policy. Under this form of agreement the insured pays up his whole insurance in twenty payments, the policy to be payable at death. Thus, the man of thirty could under this arrangement have paid up his insurance at fifty and will not have this expense to carry in old age. The experience of life insurance companies shows a large proportion of cases in which policy-holders surrender their insurance late in life on account of inability to pay the annual premium with the diminished income which old age is apt to bring. The twenty payment policy is an effort to place the burden of insurance on the strong

and active years when income is largest. On the other hand, the man who pays his insurance in this way can only secure about two thirds of the protection which he could buy with the same money in the form of ordinary straight life insurance.

The other forms of pure life insurance are term insurance and yearly renewable insurance. Both of these are cheaper than the ordinary life insurance commodity, but they are possible only for a teacher who is assured of a retiring allowance after the term is completed, coupled with an annuity for his widow. This form of insurance enables the buyer to carry a large protection over a limited period and is of value chiefly in combination with other insurance.

I have ventured to revert to this topic again in connection with the consideration of the rules for retiring allowances on account of the evidence which has come to the Foundation during the past, showing the general failure of the great mass of teachers, even in colleges, to face their responsibilities in this matter. The reason for this discussion is further emphasized by the fact that many teachers have the misconception that the retiring allowance takes the place of life insurance.

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PART III
TAX-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

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THE ADMISSION OF STATE UNIVERSITIES

THE terms of Mr. Carnegie's letter conveying to the trustees his wish to add five million dollars to the endowment of the Foundation, in order to enable the trustees to include tax-supported institutions, included a provision that such institutions should be dealt with only after the requests of their governing boards for admission to the Foundation had been approved by the governor and the legislatures of their respective states. During the last winter and spring the state legislatures of forty-one states were in session. In thirty-two of these, resolutions were adopted requesting admission to the privileges of the Foundation for the following institutions.

STATE, PROVINCE OR TERRITORY	DATE OF LEGISLATIVE ACT	INSTITUTIONS RECOMMENDED TO THE FOUNDATION
California	January 20, 1909	University of California
Colorado	March 13, 1909	University of Colorado Colorado School of Mines
Georgia	July 22, 1908	University of Georgia
Idaho	March 6, 1909	University of Idaho
Illinois	February 17, 1909	University of Illinois
Indiana	February 13, 1909	Indiana University Purdue University
Iowa	April 6, 1909	State University of Iowa Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts State Teachers College
Kansas	February 23, 1909	University of Kansas
Louisiana	July 8, 1908	Louisiana State University and Agri- cultural and Mechanical College
Maine	February 9, 1909	University of Maine
Massachusetts	June 12, 1908	Massachusetts Agricultural College
Michigan	February 11, 1909	University of Michigan
Minnesota	February 10, 1909	University of Minnesota
Missouri	April 15, 1909	University of Missouri
Montana	March 3, 1909	University of Montana
Nevada	March 31, 1909	University of Nevada
New Hampshire	February 19, 1909	New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts
New Mexico	March 15, 1909	University of New Mexico Agricultural College of New Mexico
North Carolina	February 9, 1909	University of North Carolina
North Dakota	February 5, 1909	State University of North Dakota and School of Mines

TAX-SUPPORTED INSTITUTIONS

North Dakota	June 12, 1909	North Dakota Agricultural College
Ohio	February 17, 1909	Ohio State University Ohio University Miami University
Ontario	March 5, 1909	University of Toronto
Oregon	February 13, 1909	University of Oregon
Pennsylvania	February 5, 1909	Pennsylvania State College
South Carolina	March 1, 1909	University of South Carolina Clemson Agricultural College
South Dakota		University of South Dakota
Tennessee	February 1, 1909	University of Tennessee
Washington	February 27, 1909	University of Washington State College of Washington
West Virginia	January 26, 1909	West Virginia University
Wisconsin	March 27, 1909	University of Wisconsin
Wyoming	February 20, 1909	University of Wyoming

In only one state legislature, that of Nebraska, was the resolution favoring this action defeated. In the Nebraska Senate the resolution was passed by a large majority; in the House it was defeated by two votes through the personal efforts of Mr. William Jennings Bryan. The act of the legislature of Texas was returned by Governor Campbell without his approval.

I venture to say a word concerning the immense task thrown upon the officers of the Foundation by the presentation to them simultaneously of the applications of so many institutions. To admit institutions without a serious examination of their equipment and resources, and of their educational standards, would be a misfortune. To examine so many institutions with care in a short time is impossible. The Foundation has therefore sought to do as conscientiously as possible the work of examination, which necessarily means that the admission of state institutions must proceed slowly.

Indeed, the first fact which impresses the student of education who undertakes to examine these institutions from the standpoint of national education is the presence of great inequalities. The state universities represent a wide range of educational equipment and of educational standards. Nevertheless while some of them are still weak, all have set before themselves the ideal of a strong institution crowning the state system of education with true college standards of admission and of scholarship. Among the agricultural and mechanical colleges, however, it is almost impossible to recognize any such common purpose. Each one is an institution to itself, and it is no easy task to ascertain its relation to agricultural education, to engineering education, or to the general educational interests of its state.

A feature characteristic of both the state universities and the state colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts is the oversupply of students. No one can study these large institutions without realizing that even the strongest and best of them

are to-day hampered by the presence of more students than they can really care for, and that their efficiency is also diminished by the fact that a considerable proportion of students are admitted to nearly all of them who are not really ready for college. The lack of a homogeneous preparation is a great factor in their lack of efficiency, and the strongest of the state universities owe their strength in great measure to the fact that they have attained a position in which they demand practically uniform intellectual acquirements of all who enter, and that they are dealing therefore with fairly homogeneous groups of students.

The educational situation in various states is complicated seriously by the rivalry between the state university and the state college of agriculture and the mechanic arts. From the standpoint of educational congruity, the separation of the college of agriculture from the university would seem entirely justifiable, and even desirable. Experience, however, has shown that this separation has rarely if ever in the United States brought about a real differentiation in the institutions. In nearly every state where the college of agriculture and mechanic arts is separate from the state university an unwholesome rivalry has grown up. The college of agriculture and the mechanic arts has in nearly all cases developed into an engineering school rather than into a school of agriculture, and in the rivalry for students it has almost invariably been tempted to underbid the university by lower standards. A few very strong schools of agriculture and the mechanic arts have come to the point where they demand standards of admission to their engineering schools comparable with those of the state university,—as, for example, the Iowa State College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts,¹—but in many other states where the university and the school of agriculture and mechanic arts are separated, one finds at the state agricultural college an engineering school recruited by means of low standards. Examples of the situation just mentioned are found in Kansas and Oregon. Students are drawn from the strong high schools, like those of Portland, to these sub-freshmen classes. In each of these states the state university maintains a fairly strong and rapidly improving school of engineering and applied science. At the same time each of these states is maintaining at its college of agriculture and the mechanic arts a school of engineering offering similar courses to students under lower conditions of admission. There can be no excuse for the presence of two standards in the same state for an engineering education. The chief reason in all such cases is the desire for numbers and the wish to impress the legislature. I believe it would be no injustice to say that the agricultural colleges in nearly every state deplete the high schools to magnify their own cause. In every case the result is educational demoralization. In new states, like those of Washington and Oregon, there is perhaps as little excuse for such duplication and for such rivalry as in any other part of our country, because these states have had the opportunity to see the mistakes of older educational administrations. Yet in them one finds perhaps the most aggravated conditions. For example, in the

¹ Even here sub-freshmen classes are maintained.

state of Washington one strong engineering school can supply the legitimate demands in engineering for many years to come. The development, therefore, of two engineering schools by the state would seem wholly unwise, and this rivalry has been carried to such an extent as to seem in some cases almost ludicrous. In Oregon there are nine so-called colleges and universities within a hundred miles of each other, all of them in the Willamette Valley. Amongst these are the two state institutions, the University of Oregon and the Oregon Agricultural College, about thirty-five miles apart, each engaged in the development of schools of engineering. Could anything seem more useless than two schools of mining engineering, for example, thirty miles apart in a sparsely settled state? The misfortune of this duplication and rivalry lies not only in the demoralization of educational standards, but also in the fact that agricultural education, which the agricultural colleges were primarily intended to serve, is neglected in the competition.

In the face of such conditions the officers and the executive committee of the Foundation have felt themselves compelled to go slowly. They have sought to know as thoroughly as may be what the educational systems of the various states are and the relations of these separate state institutions to the whole system of education; and they have sought to determine whether the institutions which were presented by a given state for admission to the Carnegie Foundation were really cooperating parts of a consistent system of state education or whether they were competing parts. The ascertainment of all these facts requires time, and it has been the policy of the Foundation to proceed only so rapidly as it could feel sure of the facts.

The officers and the executive committee of the Foundation have also felt it to be part of their duty to call the attention of the governors and regents recommending state institutions to the evident lack of cooperation which their state institutions exhibit. The most patent case of such lack of cooperation which came to the attention of the executive committee was in Ohio, which presented three state universities. The executive committee caused to be sent to the Governor of Ohio and to the three institutions themselves the letter which follows. This letter was intended not as a blow at any one of these institutions, nor as a refusal to accept any one of them ultimately within the provisions of the Foundation's retiring allowance system. It was intended to call the attention of those who are responsible in Ohio to the evident lack of coordination in their state system of education, and to suggest that some effort be made to remedy this lack and to differentiate these institutions in their work. The letter is as follows:

"June 9, 1909.

"DEAR SIR: The trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching have received requests from the governing boards of three Ohio state institutions, from the Ohio legislature, and from yourself, that these institutions be admitted to the privileges of the endowment for retiring allowances to college teachers.

"I forward under this cover a copy of the rules under which institutions of

learning are admitted to the benefits of this endowment. As you will note, this Foundation is primarily one for higher education. Only such state institutions ought to be admitted to its benefits as maintain fair college standards, efficient courses of instruction, and stand in organic relation to the public school system of their states.

"In order to ascertain the facts bearing on these matters, the Foundation makes a study of the standards, the quality of work, and educational significance of such institutions as apply for admission to the retiring allowance system. Once admitted, however, the professors in such institutions may claim their retiring allowances upon fixed rules as to service and age, and they receive these allowances in such cases as a right, not as a favor,—as a part, in fact, of their due compensation.

"The request made by the authorities of the state of Ohio in behalf of the admission of the Ohio universities raises an unusual problem. The state of Ohio presents to the Carnegie Foundation not one university, but three: the Ohio State University at Columbus, the Ohio University at Athens, and the Miami University at Oxford. The educational composition of each of these institutions, and their relations to each other and to the general school system of the state, are in some respects so extraordinary that, in communicating to you, as chief executive of Ohio, the decision of the executive committee of the Foundation, I am directed to include some statement of the considerations by which its action has been determined.

"When the Carnegie Foundation came to consider the request of the state of Ohio from the standpoint of educational administration, it found that the state undertakes to maintain three institutions bearing the name university. Each of the three contains a college of liberal arts; each offers more or less post-graduate instruction; two of the three possess departments of engineering; two of the three conduct normal departments, while the third provides a college of education; finally, two of the three carry on not only these college departments, but preparatory schools as well. Such overlapping as is here represented is not only wasteful, but it results in competitive bidding for students. It demoralizes the institutions concerned. It demoralizes no less the high school system of the state; and the students, instead of being stimulated to reach a single high standard, are confused by the various standards which the state provides, with a tendency always to accept the easiest alternative.

"In order to get together a student body for each of the three universities, large numbers of conditioned and special students are admitted. Many of these students ought to be in the high schools of the state, where they should be required to prove their preparation. Their presence in the state universities weakens the high schools and also the grade of instruction which the university can offer. It is difficult under the circumstances for any one of the three institutions to be strict in this matter unless all are strict, and that all should be equally strict and act with the firmness and consistency that could be maintained by a single university capping the educational system is, of course, out of the question. The name university has in fact no definite meaning under such circumstances.

"Our examination of the machinery by which students are admitted shows conclusively that the methods and standards of the three institutions differ so

widely that they go far to neutralize any influence which they are in a position to exert upon the secondary school system of the state. The Ohio State University maintains regular inspectors, on the basis of whose report an accredited list of high schools has been made up. Ohio University, on the other hand, accepts students from many high schools that the Ohio State University finds unworthy of recognition, while Miami University also pursues a course of its own. It should be said to the credit of the Ohio State University that it maintains a careful and exact system of registration and that it guards the admission to its college and scientific school with reasonable care. In the Ohio University, on the contrary, there is no effective system of registration, and the only ruling principle which can be observed is the effort to bring into the college as many students as possible of all grades, in order to create the maximum effect upon the legislature.

“Finally, the state further confuses the educational situation by maintaining two preparatory departments, thus retarding the development of a uniform and comprehensive secondary school system. It seems to us worthy of particular notice that the great state of Ohio should have a school system generally felt to be inferior to that of near-by western states, and that it should offer such meagre facilities for the effective training of teachers. There is unquestionably a close connection between this fact and the multiplication of state universities.

“It is quite evident that the three state universities are not all real universities. That designation may fairly be conceded to Ohio State University, and if relieved from the pressure of state competition, it would no doubt assume within a reasonable time the efficient and orderly development of such an institution as the University of Wisconsin. The Ohio University is a mixture of college, normal school, and academy, while the Miami University is a fairly good college with the same mixture of normal school and academy.

“In view of the conditions which have been referred to, it seems clear to the executive committee of the Carnegie Foundation that the cause of education would not be served by the admission of any of these institutions at the present time to the benefits of the Carnegie Foundation. The committee most respectfully ventures to suggest that the educational interests of the state of Ohio require that these three institutions be reconstructed in such wise that their functions may be differentiated and that each be assigned a definite place in a comprehensive and consistent educational system. This communication is made to the chief executive of the state in the belief that a frank statement of the situation, as it appears to us, is the best service which such a body as ours can render to the state of Ohio, and in the further belief that the adoption of a consistent and effective educational policy by the commonwealth is a matter in which the interests of all citizens of Ohio are seriously involved. I am

“Most respectfully yours,

“(Signed) HENRY S. PRITCHETT.

“Honorable JUDSON HARMON,
“Governor of Ohio,
“Columbus, Ohio.”

As the result of the studies which the Foundation has been able to make, there were admitted in June, 1909, four tax-supported universities, — Wisconsin, Michigan,

Minnesota, and Toronto. In September, 1909, the University of Missouri was admitted. The departments of agriculture in Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Missouri were not included in this action for reasons given elsewhere. The facts relating to these institutions are given in another section which sets forth the grounds upon which they were admitted, as well as the educational situation which exists in their respective states. The fact that other well known universities in the United States do not appear in this list means nothing other than that the Foundation is seeking to proceed carefully, and that in taking up with the various institutions the matter of their admission, some question has arisen concerning which further information is necessary in order to reach a decision. In one institution, for example, the school of law or of medicine does not seem to the Foundation to be upon a standard adequate to university ideals. In another the articulation of the university, even when a strong institution, with three-year high schools presents a situation which at least requires full information to understand. In still another a large secondary school is maintained upon the university campus, whose students mingle indiscriminately with college students. It may be that such an arrangement is justifiable, but it needs further examination of all the facts in order to make that evident. As fast as these matters can be cleared up, the institutions which are doing the work of higher education in the United States and Canada will be admitted, but the interests of education and of the institutions alike are conserved by proceeding only so fast as is consistent with full knowledge.

Particularly is such a course to be adhered to in dealing with the professional schools. At the beginning of its work the Carnegie Foundation had no means of knowing the standards of the law schools and of the medical schools. The information concerning these schools and their relation to general education is now available. The knowledge thus gathered shows conclusively that there has been an enormous over-production in this country of ill trained doctors and of half educated lawyers. Both the cause of public health and the American respect for law have suffered from this over-production. Unfortunately many of these agencies for the production of inefficient doctors and lawyers are doing their work under the shelter of colleges and universities; some of these are on private foundation and some are tax-supported institutions. Not only are the standards of admission to these professional schools low, but even the standards which are professed are in many cases evaded. Some medical schools now sheltered by institutions of learning are disreputable as well as inefficient. In this matter the attitude of the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation is uncompromising. They will admit no college or university, however strong in numbers or in the prestige of other departments, which either sustains or shelters a low grade law school or a medical school unfit for the training of men in modern medicine. They will ask exactly the same standards of institutions already on the accepted list. The Foundation will print at an early date an accurate description of all medical schools in the United States and Canada setting forth their re-

sources, their standards, and the quality of medical instruction which they can offer. A similar study of law schools will follow.

It seems necessary to add one word further in this connection applicable alike to colleges upon public and upon private foundation. No institution of higher learning has a right to undertake the conduct of a school of medicine except from the standpoint of the betterment of medical education. And yet in the great majority of cases colleges and universities undertake these schools with no thought of serving medical education or of bettering medical practice. More than one college or university president states in his annual report that the medical department of his institution has not cost the institution a cent. The college or university which undertakes to conduct a medical school on this basis wrongs education and medical practice.

Presidents of state universities which are spending hundreds of thousands of dollars on the training of engineers have urged upon the Foundation the impossibility of obtaining any help from the state in medical education. This situation, if it really exists, is little less than disgraceful. Good training in medicine can no more be maintained on a commercial basis than can good training in engineering. The medical practitioners of a state are primarily the ones who ought to see to it that education in medicine is lifted out of the proprietary status. The state university and those who stand for high standards of medical practice owe it to their state and to their profession to make clear to the legislature the cost of true medical education and the necessity for it. If public opinion in this matter is uneducated, it is full time that those interested in education and in medicine should undertake its enlightenment.

Finally, it ought clearly to be understood that the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation will admit no college or university which, under the form of an affiliation, shelters a proprietary law school or a proprietary medical school. The one great service which a university can render to a professional school is to give it university standards and university ideals. If it does not do this, the connection of the professional school and the university has no real reason for existence. Many universities, and among them some state universities situated in small towns, are permitting medical schools to be conducted under their names which are for all practical purposes proprietary schools, owned and managed by groups of doctors in a distant city. These alliances are wholly objectionable. The university furnishes no support and it has no control. It lends the support of its charter to a school as far removed from university standards as it could possibly be. The only thing the university gets out of it is the weak satisfaction of including in its catalogue a medical department. Under this device a number of weak and, in some cases, disreputable medical schools have been able to live. Not only is this true, but in cities where decent medical schools are struggling to live, distant colleges and universities have lent the shelter of their charters to a rival coterie of doctors to enable them to establish an unnecessary competing school. Such action is regrettable alike from the standpoint

of the university and of the medical practitioner. It has arisen in the main not from any wrong intention, but from a widespread desire for numbers, a lack of consideration of the facts, and in many cases from an entire lack of knowledge of the cost of modern medical education and of the oversupply of doctors.

In this matter the trustees of the Foundation desire that their attitude may be clearly understood. They have caused to be made within the last year a careful study of medical education in the United States and Canada. In the course of this study every medical school in these two countries has been visited and studied. This report, which will be printed sometime during the coming spring, will show that there are in this country more medical schools than in all Europe; it will show that these schools have turned upon the public a far larger number of physicians than are needed, that even the remote villages of almost every state are oversupplied with physicians. It will show that the majority of those physicians are ill trained and poorly educated, and that the imperative need in medicine at the present time is not more medical schools, but fewer and better ones; not more ill trained doctors, but a smaller number of well trained ones; not more uneducated men in this profession, but a smaller number of better educated men. It seems clear to the Foundation that under these circumstances an institution of higher learning which lends itself to the commercial exploitation of law or of medicine rather than to the betterment of the standards of these two great professions can have no claims at its hands on the ground of the excellent service it may be doing in other fields.

POLITICS IN STATE INSTITUTIONS

THE term politics, in the larger sense, includes all those complicated influences — formal, social, and personal — which result from the efforts of men in civilized life to cooperate. In this sense, politics is a part of all human organization wherever men react on one another. More commonly, however, we use the term to designate those direct and indirect influences which tend to promote special or personal interests. Such influences arise generally under two forms, — those which come from the machinery of organization and those which come from personality. Politics in this sense is therefore either official or personal, — the politics which arises mainly out of the machinery, or the politics which springs from the efforts of individuals to promote their own interests. This last form of educational politics — the personal one — exists in all institutions in greater or less degree. Likes and dislikes, friendships and antipathies, are common to human beings, whether they be teachers or congressmen, whether they live in Massachusetts or in Nebraska.

State institutions are, from the nature of their organization, more exposed to dangers from the politics of organization. They are creatures of the state and are under the state government. This government is a party government, and the temp-

tation to use the state college or university from the standpoint of party interest, or more often from the standpoint of the interest of some clique in the party, is always present. This sort of politics is intensified by the rivalry of the educational institutions themselves. When the state university and the state college of agriculture and mechanic arts are lobbying against each other before the state legislature, those party leaders who want places and patronage find their opportunity to promote educational politics. One cannot go into lobbying methods in the legislature and escape the results of those methods in his college. The college president who represents a state institution has everything to gain by giving up lobbying altogether and resting his case on a fair, sensible, and clear presentation of the facts to the committee of the legislature charged with its consideration. He may not get all he asks at first, but no other form of virtue so quickly brings its own reward in increased respect and stronger financial support.

While this relation of the state university to the state government carries the possibility of political interference, it brings at the same time a great opportunity. Any institution in a democracy is powerful which has direct relation to the political life of the people. The state university which educates its legislature to the conception that good educational organization and partisan politics are incompatible has done a notable service to the people of its state. Our stronger state universities have reached this point, and they form to-day the most encouraging exhibits of our program of democratic government.

In many institutions this standard has not been reached, but I believe that in all states of the Union progress is making toward it. In many of the newer states personal and political ambition, institutional rivalries, and the lack of interest of the best men of the state in their educational institutions still permit party politics to play a part in the state institutions of higher learning, but in the end the examples of the strong state universities and the gradual formation of public opinion will take the state universities of all the states out of factional and party politics.

The past year has witnessed in several states events which indicate that this desirable condition is still far from realized. In my last report was given at some length an account of a revolutionary reorganization of the State University of Oklahoma. I pointed out at that time the difference between the government of a university and its administration. The year's history seems to bear out the conclusion that the regents of this institution, or at least a minority of them who are the more aggressive, are still proceeding upon the theory that a board of regents can do the detailed work of university administration, such as selection of professors and the discipline of students, which should fall to a trained executive in coöperation with a capable faculty. The continuation of this policy has brought its natural results. Some of the better men have left, and against some of the appointments of the board the students have made strong complaints of incompetency. Whatever the facts, nothing can be clearer than the futility of the effort of such a board to administer details.

There is no help for such a situation, save the gradual education of the people of the state to the conception of educational administration divorced from personal, denominational, and party politics. The man who, serving on such a board, undertakes to further the interests of his church, his party, or his friends does not serve either education or the state. The production of a body of state university trustees capable, catholic, and able to discharge their duties impartially is a conspicuous mark of a high civilization.

The incongruities into which the attempt to administer the details of a college may lead such a board are illustrated in many of the proceedings of the regents of Oklahoma for the past year. The board of regents, under the leadership of a very active clerical member, passed resolutions requesting members of the faculty to abstain from engaging in public dancing and card parties. This sensitiveness to even the appearance of evil would be more easily recognized as the mark of an earnest and devoted (even if mistaken) reformer, had not the board at the same time passed another resolution which violated all the standards of its former creditable history in such matters by conferring on the same reverend gentleman the honorary degree of LL.D. Trustees who accept degrees at the hands of boards of which they are members will get scant respect either for their sincerity or for their modesty. The board, in taking this action, conferred the same degree on the new president of the university and on former President Boyd, whom the trustees peremptorily dismissed a year ago. Dr. Boyd declined the honor in a dignified letter. There can be no secure progress for the University of Oklahoma until its board is made up of men whose conception of their duties makes such action as this impossible.

Higher education in the state of Florida has always sailed upon the uncertain sea of partisan politics. Prior to 1905 there were six institutions (called colleges) supported at least in part by the state, all of low grade. The legislature of that year abolished them all and established two institutions of higher learning,—one for men, the University of the State of Florida, at Gainesville; the other for women, the Florida Female College at Tallahassee. The selection of these sites was effected after considerable difficulty, and left naturally some irritation in the towns which had lost institutions.

As president of the state university Dr. Andrew Sledd was selected. Dr. Sledd is a southern-born man. He has had an admirable training, and he conducted the university upon unusually good ideals, setting up standards which were high, yet not too high for the public school system of the state. The board of control, as the governing body is legally called, consists of five citizens of the state appointed by the governor. The present body is made up of high-minded and trusted men. There is in the state a second board, known as the state board of education, consisting of the governor, the secretary of state, the attorney-general, the state treasurer, and the state superintendent of public instruction. The dominating power in this board is the superintendent of instruction.

The state board of education claimed that under the act of 1906, known as the Buckman bill, it had supervision of the board of control of the university. The board of control maintained that it was not under such supervision, but when the matter was submitted to the attorney-general, he decided that the state board had such supervisory power and that a president of the university selected by the board of control must be confirmed by the board of education.

Matters were in this situation when the reelection of the president of the state university came up, it being the custom in this institution to elect officers and teachers year by year. The board of control reelected Dr. Sledd; the board of education refused to accept him. The result was a deadlock between the two boards, which was relieved by the resignation of Dr. Sledd. Thereupon the board of control elected as president Dr. A. A. Murphree of the Woman's College.

The opposition to Dr. Sledd and the championship of Dr. Murphree was in the main due to the activity of the superintendent of education, the governor naturally accepting the suggestion of his official adviser in such matters.

The objections of the state superintendent to Dr. Sledd were practically based on the fact that the numbers in the newly formed university were not as large as they ought to be, and that the president did not work in harmony with the State Department of Public Instruction.

As always happens in such cases, it is not entirely easy for the outsider to determine the exact facts. That President Sledd chose to develop a true college with moderate numbers instead of a large college with low standards is immensely to his credit and to the advantage of the state. An examination of the institution also shows that he was succeeding well in reaching the people of the state by the extension of university work. It is in fact difficult to understand the attitude of the superintendent of education in this matter, except upon the ground of the universal cry for numbers. It is difficult also to avoid the conclusion that the superintendent of education desired a much more direct interference in the university than is consistent with good administration, and that he had acquired a bias of personal and political hostility. This opinion seemed to be shared by the best men in the state whose opinions I was able to obtain. In any case a president of singular ability who had built up one of the most creditable educational efforts of the south, an institution which was growing as rapidly as it ought to grow consistently with good standards, was forced to resign against the judgment of his own board of trustees and chiefly through the activity of one man. Both the superintendent of education and the newly elected president of the university insist that in the coming administration there shall be no letting down of standards. The situation is not an easy one for President Murphree. The man who accepts a place from which a scholarly and efficient predecessor has been forced out is on the defensive, at least with scholars who accept the standards which have just been discredited. It will be necessary to show "results," and the results called for by the superintendent of education are more students in the institution. The

number of true college students in Florida is limited. It is difficult to see how, with good standards, this number can grow faster than under President Sledd. With regard to these phases of the situation President Murphree writes the Foundation under date of May 29 as follows:

"When the Board elected me to succeed Dr. Sledd I declined at first for reasons which should be obvious to you. The Board of Control urged me to accept their offer, and stated that I was the only man in view at that time whom they could unanimously endorse as a successor to Dr. Sledd, and who would also meet the approval of the State Board of Education. Being assured, therefore, that my nomination was not dictated by the State Board of Education, or other friends, but came as a voluntary and unanimous call from the Board of Control; also, having the assurance that the State Board of Education would unanimously approve my election, I reconsidered and decided to accept the presidency of the University.

"I have already announced through the press that it will be my purpose to uphold the same high standards of scholarship at the State University which have been maintained by President Sledd, and that I will not cater to the popular whim for numbers at the sacrifice of decent standards of scholarship and entrance requirements. *I will stand or fall on this platform.* The Board of Control and the State Board of Education are no less determined than myself to maintain good standards in the University, and I beg to assure you that there will be no lowering of standards under the new management."

Apart from the importance of these proceedings in the University of Florida to the educational system of that state and of the United States, they are of interest from the attempt here made at a central administration of state educational interests. Florida has, in common with most states, suffered from the rivalries of competing state institutions. In the reorganization effected by the Buckman law, there was an effort made to vest in one board some supervision over all the educational institutions of the state. This principle seems a sound one, but its execution as provided for in this law seems unfortunate. The central board to whom this supervision was intrusted was a political board whose members were closely associated with party success and involved in active political efforts. Only one of them had any considerable knowledge of education or educational problems. It is clear that a board so constituted is not a suitable body for supervising the educational administration of a state, however honest or well intentioned the members may be. A board charged with this important duty should be composed, in part at least, of men acquainted with educational methods, and it should be free from the temptations which go with participation in party management.

The institution known as the University of New Mexico has also been going through the throes of an overturning, in which the regents summarily dismissed President Tight, who had been eight years at its head, and two professors. The facts concerning

this action are so complicated with personal and political charges and countercharges that it is almost hopeless to undertake to investigate the rights and wrongs. It seems worth while to make a brief statement of the closing acts of the drama as indicating certain general tendencies in the younger state institutions.

President Tight came to the University of New Mexico some eight years ago from the chair of geology of Denison University. At that time the institution was practically a preparatory school. During the eight years it has made great progress both in standards and in the facilities for teaching. For the last two years there has been considerable talk against the president, sometimes assuming the form of criticism of his administration, at other times personal insinuations against him. In the main it was the sort of gossip which is fostered in a small village. Soon after Christmas of last year a young man was expelled by the president on the ground that he had taken liquor into the dormitories. The young man denied the charge and instituted a systematic campaign throughout the territory against the president. Later a young woman instructor in the university, a friend of the expelled young man, was called on to resign by the president. She refused and carried the matter to the board of regents, which took no action. Toward the end of the school year the president requested the resignations of two professors and recommended that they be not reappointed. They likewise refused to resign and appealed to the regents with lengthy countercharges.

The regents met and resolved that, for reasons "which do not in any way reflect on the honesty, character, and ability" of the two professors, they ought not to be reemployed. The board also resolved that the "best interests of the university require that the connection of President Tight with the institution shall cease," and the secretary was accordingly instructed to ask for his resignation. It is understood that President Tight did not know his resignation was to be considered.

Whether this drastic action of the board of regents was justified, in view of the continued friction, charges, and countercharges of the past two years, is not a question into which an outsider can go. Any institution in which professors are engaged by the year and are reappointed or not as the president may decide, in which the personal differences of officers and students are carried into the public prints, and in which the regents finally dismiss a president without previous notice that his case is to be considered, is a university in name only. No institution can hope to obtain good men on the one-year appointment plan. The whole arrangement lends itself to personal and political intrigue and academic insecurity. The first duty of the regents of the institution is to make clear the educational independence of the institution from such influences, and to guarantee the integrity of both president and teachers against trivial criticism and personal gossip. Until an institution can outgrow this phase, it offers little hope to the student body of a stimulating intellectual and moral atmosphere. In such conditions the assumption is that the moment the president and a member of his faculty have different views on a question of educational

policy, one or the other must resign. It is the very essence of a true college to breed an atmosphere in which differences lead to no such issues, but in which the truth is finally reached after a fair discussion. The plight of the institution and the territory which it is expected to serve is typical. It is a situation in which a wise board of regents has a great opportunity; for it can protect academic security within the institution, as well as educate the people of the territory to a respect for it, rising above gossip, intrigue, and personalities.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION

THE Carnegie Foundation is specifically devoted to higher education, so far as the use of its funds is involved. It goes without saying that no student of education can be interested in higher education without studying at the same time the questions of secondary and elementary education. Among those agencies which are included in the institutions of higher education none have been more difficult to estimate than agricultural colleges. These institutions exist in the United States to-day under two forms: first, as separate colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, or second, as colleges of agriculture which are parts of a state university. The trustees of the Carnegie Foundation have hitherto felt themselves unable to admit either of these groups of schools to the list of institutions of higher learning entitled to the benefits of the Carnegie Foundation.

This is due to no lack of interest in agricultural higher education, but rather to the difficulty of understanding what higher agricultural education means and what conceptions these institutions themselves entertain as to their own problems and their relation to education in general. In order to get a clearer idea of the whole question the Foundation is preparing a review of the aid to education which came from the Morrill Act and other legislation of Congress.

The essential difficulty of reckoning these schools with other agencies for higher education lies in the lack of a consistent educational ideal among the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts or of any well sustained effort to articulate with the general system of education of their states. Not only do the strongest of them contain great numbers of secondary school students, but the institutions themselves represent a mixture of many separate educational efforts, in which the ordinary college and the school of technology predominate.

Broadly speaking, three fairly distinct conceptions can be recognized in the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts as they exist in the state universities and in separate institutions, leaving out of consideration entirely the short courses for farmers and mature men, which may be reckoned as extension work. These conceptions are the following.

1. A school whose purpose is to attract the youth from the farm, giving him two years—more or less—of practical agricultural training and elementary shop practice in the mechanic arts, accompanied with elementary theoretical instruction, and

directing him back to the farm adapted both by training and inclination to the vocation of a farmer along modern lines. This conception would be fulfilled by an agricultural trade school with low entrance requirements.

2. A college of agriculture associated with an experiment station and starting from the same entrance requirements as other college departments. Such a college would train the leaders in agriculture, the managers of great agricultural plants, teachers of agriculture, and the like. This conception would be fulfilled by an agricultural college pure and simple, whether a part of a university or whether a separate agricultural college.

3. A general college giving instruction in all branches of study, including agriculture, and maintaining under the term mechanic arts an engineering school similar to those maintained in universities and schools of technology.

The agricultural and mechanic arts colleges of the United States, as they exist to-day, represent all possible mingling of these three conceptions, but there is not among them all a single institution devoted purely to agriculture, nor one devoted to agriculture and the mechanic arts which would naturally go with it. Even at the Massachusetts Agricultural College there is a required course in civil engineering, and several elective courses in the same subject.

The consequences flowing from this confusion of incongruous educational conceptions are well illustrated in the criticisms made by many of the advocates of agricultural colleges with respect to the ordinary college which does not offer agricultural or mechanical education. For example, Secretary Wilson of the Department of Agriculture in a recent paper remarked: "Most of our colleges to-day are strenuously at work turning out lawyers, doctors, preachers, and typewriters, but few of them make any effort to graduate a farmer. I would have agriculture in some form taught in every seat of learning and in our public schools."

It is quite true, as the Secretary states, that the colleges do not send men to the farms in any considerable numbers, but no other colleges are so successful as the agricultural colleges in taking a boy from the farm and sending him somewhere else. The Iowa State Agricultural College, for example, has turned out many more engineers, lawyers, doctors, preachers, typewriters, editors, and politicians than it has farmers. The reason is clear. The agricultural college, with its high entrance requirements and extensive courses of study, is no better adapted for training the great army of farmers than is the engineering school for training the mechanics of the country. To do this is needed not an agricultural college, but an agricultural trade school, such, for example, as exists and is most successfully conducted at Guelph, Ontario. This institution, the Ontario Agricultural College, actually does take boys off the farm, gives them good agricultural training, and sends them back to the farm. The difference in purpose between it and such institutions as our colleges of agriculture is strikingly reflected in the difference of the requirements for admission, which are shown side by side in the following table.

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Iowa State College

The completion of a four-year high school course containing thirty credits, seventeen of which are fixed and thirteen are elective. The required credits include algebra, geometry, English history, and a foreign language. The thirteen elective credits may be taken from practically any studies offered in the regular four-year high school.

Ontario College of Agriculture

Candidates must be sixteen years old, must produce certificates of having spent at least one year in farm work, and must have a practical knowledge of ordinary farm operations, must stand a satisfactory examination in arithmetic, English dictation and English grammar, and geography.

If we are to train men for the thousands of positions which are to be filled in every state in the practical operation of farms, we need not one agricultural college, but many agricultural trade schools, and to bring about this result we need to keep clearly in mind the distinction between an agricultural trade school and an agricultural college.

Nor would, in my judgment, the insertion of agriculture as a study in the curriculum of every secondary school throughout the country make any difference in their output of farmers. These secondary schools are not trade schools; they are intended, and they should remain, schools for the general training of boys and girls for all callings. Agriculture put into one of these schools as a study will remain, as it ought to remain, a study for general training, not a means of trade instruction. We have had in the last twenty years a most striking example of what happens in such a case. Twenty-five years ago, when manual training was introduced into the secondary schools, it was the expectation of many that this would lead to a large group of well trained mechanics. It has had no such result. Manual training has remained a fruitful study, but its purpose has been purely pedagogic. It is impossible to make of the secondary schools trade schools by the insertion of a study which bears a trade name.

When one comes, therefore, to examine the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, one is practically compelled to consider them from each of the three standpoints which I have mentioned, and to try to decide how far they represent the one or the other of these conceptions.

So far as the college of agriculture is a trade school it is, of course, outside of the purpose of this Foundation, however useful and important that work may be.

When considered as a college, the school of agriculture presents three phases of activity: first, the work of instruction; second, the work of research in the experiment station; third, the work of distribution of the results of its experiments to the farmers. In a number of institutions, both where the college of agriculture is a part of the state university, and in the separate state colleges such as that of Iowa, the first two lines of effort are successfully prosecuted. Both instruction and experimentation are well done. I am inclined to think from conferences with many

farmers throughout the United States that the college of agriculture is less successful in getting its results into the hands of farmers than in any other of the activities which it undertakes. Each college distributes a number of bulletins among farmers, but this literature accomplishes only in a small degree the end sought. Few farmers are in a position to learn from a bulletin, and the fact remains that, while the agricultural colleges have for thirty years been in many cases well supported and very active, the natural resources of the soil in their respective states have steadily deteriorated. The conservation of these resources and their betterment can never be had through the education of a few hundred men at the agricultural college; it can be had only through the training of many thousands of men in practical agriculture.

The agricultural college is only part of the machinery necessary to meet this demand. It can no more furnish the farmers than can the engineering school furnish the skilled mechanics who are to operate the lathes in our factories.

In view of this situation the student of our present day educational status in the United States can but wonder that no one of these institutions has become exclusively an agricultural school such as that in Ontario. The province of Ontario has established a provincial university and an agricultural college, both supported out of the provincial treasury. Each confines itself to its own field. One is a state university with fruitful courses in literature, science, and technology; the other is an agricultural school pure and simple. The result is, both are unusually efficient. How does it happen that on our side of the line no one of the colleges of agriculture has ever chosen to develop purely as an agricultural college, with only such teaching of the mechanic arts as naturally goes with the operations of agriculture? The institution which did this would have served its state and its people in a most unusual and effective way.

The reasons why this result has never come about on the United States side are varied. One reason is that when the agricultural and mechanical colleges were founded as a result of an act of Congress, there was no clear-cut conception as to what they were to do. Very early in their history the race for numbers began, and this has been a potent influence in confusing educational ideals. It has resulted also in the copying by the agricultural colleges of the methods of other institutions, instead of striking out to devise methods of instruction suitable to students of agriculture. The college of agriculture and mechanic arts has imitated mainly the old arts college and the school of technology. In very many cases the engineering side has run away with the agricultural side, and in practically all of the agricultural colleges to-day it entirely overshadows in numbers and in influence the college of agriculture.

The reasons why the agricultural colleges ran so strongly to engineering are not far to seek. First of all, the term "mechanic arts" was a very indefinite one. It might mean elementary instruction in tempering, filing, carpentry, and such other work as would be useful to a farmer, or it might be translated to mean high-grade engineering. The agricultural schools generally took it to signify the latter, and for the rea-

son that the schools of engineering had at that time just begun to attain popularity and had just succeeded in framing curricula which were definite and apparently satisfactory. So strong did the drift toward engineering education prove that in nearly all of the separate colleges of agriculture it has become to-day the dominant factor.

Looking back over the history of government aid to education in the United States one cannot but realize that no other calling has been so subsidized by the government through education as agriculture. Examining the results of these fifty years of expenditure, it seems also safe to say that this expenditure has been mainly in the interest of general college education and of the training of engineers. The problem of getting boys from the farm, training them to intelligent work for the farm, and directing them back to enthusiastic occupations on the farm, remains to-day practically untouched.

It is in the state universities rather than in the agricultural colleges that the effort has begun to differentiate between the conception of the agricultural college and that of the agricultural trade school.

Two attempts to solve this problem are now going on which are so striking as to deserve special mention. The first is in the state of Wisconsin. The college of agriculture of the University of Wisconsin has been one of the most effective agricultural schools in the country, and has done a large service to the state of Wisconsin. Those who direct it have for some years clearly foreseen the time when it would be necessary to differentiate between college work in agriculture and secondary or trade school work. Four agricultural high schools have been erected in that state. Others will follow, and within a limited time it seems clear that the secondary work in agriculture will be turned over to these schools, while the work of the college of agriculture will remain, as it ought, in the university. Already in the college of agriculture the secondary school work has been differentiated from the college work and is carried on by a different group of instructors.

In the University of Minnesota the necessity to distinguish between the agricultural college and the agricultural trade school has been met by establishing two distinct schools,—one the college of agriculture upon a college basis, the other the school of agriculture upon practically a trade school basis.

Considered from the work of education which they are organized to do, the separate colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts as they exist to-day can be judged neither from the standpoint of an agricultural trade school nor from the standpoint of an agricultural college, but from the standpoint of colleges undertaking the general work of education and of technological training.

That they have rendered service in general education may be granted. To them have been attracted many who would not otherwise have obtained an education, although it is not always clear how large a proportion of these students have come from the farms and how large a proportion from towns. Many boys go from the

towns to-day to get engineering education at the colleges of agriculture, because they can there obtain an education cheaply and upon easy entrance requirements.

Considered as educational institutions the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts are open to the gravest criticism on the ground of low standards. It might be justifiable to maintain low standards of admission to an agricultural trade school, but there is no justification for low standards in engineering colleges. Yet nearly all of these colleges, even the strongest, are engaged in the effort to build up engineering schools by admitting students upon standards lower than those of the state university of their respective states. This is the case in Kansas, Oregon, and in many southern states. If these institutions devoted themselves to agriculture as their chief work, they might ask to be judged on the ground of their service to agriculture. They are, however, serving agriculture in only a limited degree, and the only fair basis upon which they can be judged is upon their position as colleges furnishing general and technical education in many fields. It seems to me that before the Carnegie Foundation is justified in granting to one of these institutions admission to the privileges of the retiring allowance system, the institution should make clear to the people of its state its answers to the following questions:

1. Is the work of the agricultural college that of a college or that of an agricultural trade school, or of both?

2. In any case, what plan has the college of agriculture for providing elementary training in agriculture, and in what way does it propose to differentiate between the agricultural college education and the training of the agricultural school?

3. What relation does the college of agriculture and mechanic arts, with its courses in general science and technology, occupy toward the secondary school system of its state? Does it articulate with these schools?

4. Does the school of agriculture and mechanic arts form with the state university of its state a cooperating system of higher education, or are these two institutions engaged in a competition in which one or the other aims to gain the advantage by lowering standards?

Until clear answers to these questions have been formulated by the colleges themselves, it seems to me that the trustees of the Foundation are not in a position to deal with them as agencies of higher education. I do not mean by this that the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts can be treated in a class by themselves any more than state universities are so treated by the Foundation. In dealing with each university, the Foundation has sought to know its standards, its conception of its work and its ability to carry out this conception. It should ask the same information of the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts.

THE FUTURE OF THE AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE

WHILE the confusion to which I have just alluded as between college and secondary education, or, to put it in another way, as between professional and trade education, undoubtedly exists in the colleges of agriculture and mechanic arts, no one in seeking to estimate them should fail to give full credit for the difficulties under which they have labored and for the results which some of them have accomplished.

When one considers the great numbers of students in these colleges to-day, it is a little difficult to appreciate the situation which they faced originally. When the Morrill Act was passed, it did not come in response to any great demand on the part of farmers, but was really the act of one man, who himself had no clear conception of what he wanted to do. When these colleges opened their doors and invited students to come and study agriculture, the farmers as a rule, and for many years to come, fought shy of them. In consequence the agricultural and mechanical colleges resorted to all kinds of devices to get students. As the presidents of some of these institutions have most naively stated: "We had to get students; otherwise, the state university would come down and take our land-grant money away."

The field most readily accessible to the agricultural college under these circumstances was that of secondary education, and a large proportion of the agricultural colleges of the country are still engaged in secondary education, and this even in states where such action is a practical robbing of the high schools. The next most obvious field for getting students was the various branches of technological training, and in order to accomplish this the term "mechanic arts" was construed to mean high-grade engineering. There is nothing in the original Morrill Act to show what this term really did mean, and it is quite clear from the language which Senator Morrill used at the time of the passage of the act that he himself had no very clear idea, although years afterwards, when the colleges had begun to give engineering education, he committed himself to the idea of a high-grade, scientific, technical education. However that may be, it is clear that for the first twenty years of its existence the college of agriculture and mechanic arts faced as its fundamental question, how to get students, not, what is the college designed to do; and it is only within very recent times that the fruits of the experiment stations have secured enough recognition amongst those interested in farming to bring a fair number of students to the agricultural courses. As late as a dozen years ago there were only ten students of agriculture in the agricultural school of the University of Illinois.

As a result of this long struggle for existence, the agricultural and mechanical college has only very recently begun to face its real problem. During this interval it has never differentiated between agriculture as a profession and farming as a trade. Its fixed courses have all looked toward the professional side rather than the trade side, with the constant effort, however, to extend, by some form of outside teaching, the results of the theoretical work to the trades. The courses in domestic science

which have been added are also upon the theoretical basis, and domestic science as taught in these schools has little more relation to the teaching of cooking to farmers' daughters than the courses of agriculture have to the teaching of farming to farmers' sons.

In considering, therefore, the college of agriculture to-day it is to be remembered that it has done its work during these last thirty or forty years under a constant struggle for existence, and this applies particularly to states in which the college of agriculture and mechanic arts is separated from the state university. In fact, as one goes about the various states of the Union, one realizes that it has been in every case a misfortune to have made a college of agriculture separate from the state university, principally for the reason that the very act of separation has brought about a rivalry which has been at the expense of agricultural teaching. Notwithstanding these unfortunate conditions, the colleges of agriculture have succeeded in attaining some most creditable results. They have trained a great number of engineers, but this side of their work ought to be given comparatively small weight. Such engineers would have been trained elsewhere, and in many cases better than the agricultural colleges have trained them. From the standpoint of agriculture, however, and of agricultural education these colleges have rendered distinctive service: first, in the enormous improvements brought about by the experiment stations; secondly, in the education of a group of teachers of agriculture and of experts in agricultural processes; and finally, by the distribution of the knowledge of the improvements worked out in the experiment stations.

The training of teachers of agriculture and of men capable of experimentation was a work which the agricultural colleges were compelled to do before they could have themselves a capable body of teachers. It therefore is not strange that the great bulk of the graduates in the agricultural courses have gone either into teaching places or into the experiment stations, or into the Department of Agriculture itself. The relation between the Department of Agriculture and the agricultural colleges is, of course, a most close and intimate one, as it ought to be. The colleges train men for the expert work of the department, and the department, on the other hand, has supplied a field of work for such graduates. Helpful as the relationship is, it nevertheless brings about a situation in which it is not very easy to get unprejudiced opinions from the department concerning the agricultural colleges, nor from the agricultural college concerning the department. The two agencies are so inextricably connected, both in interest and personnel, that neither is in a situation to give an independent view of the other.

The enormous improvements which have come about through the labors of the experiment stations are well known. In dairying, in seed selection, in stock judging, in fertilization and treatment of the soil, in all the directions of practical farming, the work of the experiment stations has been of immense value.

The third contribution of the agricultural college, namely, the distribution of the

fruits of this experimentation to farmers, has been, so far as I can judge, less successful than either of the other two to which I have just alluded. It is true that all the agricultural colleges have large mailing lists. They issue an enormous number of bulletins. They are in more or less close touch with the farmers' institutes and offer short courses which a certain number of men from the farms attend. All this work may be fruitful, but its total outcome is not so great as one might expect. The farmers do not readily assimilate information given in a bulletin, however simply it is put; the short courses appeal in many cases rather to the hired man on the farm than to the farm owner and his son, and the total effect of all this distribution has not yet been able to check the waste of the resources of the soil.

We have now come, as it seems to me, to a point where the agricultural college ought clearly to define its own mission. That mission seems to me to be the work of a true college, with its experts and experiment station and its means of distribution. The time has come when it must be clearly admitted that such a college can contribute only indirectly to trade education. Once this is admitted, the place of such an institution becomes distinctive and clearly outlined, and under such a conception the agricultural and mechanical college should hold to college standards and drop secondary education altogether.

THE TRAINING OF THE FARMER

THE general problem of agricultural education is somewhat clarified when the distinction just alluded to has been made, but the problem has, of course, not thereby been solved. It is clear that the agricultural colleges, working as they are to-day, will not in a hundred years reach the men who must be taught practical farming. The conservation of the resources of the soil has steadily deteriorated in most states, notwithstanding the existence for forty years of these agencies. Admitting that the agricultural college is only one of the agencies in the general process of agricultural education, what are the other agencies which must be set in motion to reach the farmer?

The first step in the solution of any such problem is to recognize the fact that farming is a trade, not a profession, and that the processes which are to be taught to the men in this trade must meet the economic conditions of the trade itself.

It would seem also clear from the experience already gained that the sons of men who own farms and live upon them cannot be gathered from a wide area into a single agricultural trade school. For example, the college of agriculture at Guelph, Ontario, offers a two-year course in practical agriculture under conditions which are extremely low in cost. Furthermore, the institution has developed to as full an extent as any of the American agricultural colleges its contact with farmers. It brings every year from 30,000 to 40,000 farmers to the college and shows them the results of experiments in the growing of plants, in the handling of stock, and in the treatment

of soil. It distributes bulletins to a very large number. It is in touch with the farmers' institutes, and yet, notwithstanding all this, the population of a province of two and a half million people, mainly devoted to agriculture, furnished only a little more than one hundred students to enter the trade school of agriculture at Guelph the present year. In response to such an opportunity one might well expect five thousand instead of one hundred. It is clear that farmers' sons will not go in large numbers to distant places to study the trade of farming.

The essential problem seems to be to reach the son of the man who owns the soil, not the hired man; to interest this boy, who now goes in almost every case for employment to the city, and to direct him to intelligent work on the farm along modern lines.

The effort to do this, in the central west at least, is complicated by a rapid movement of the farmers themselves towards the towns. Already over a considerable section of this region absentee landlordism is beginning to show its ordinary fruits in the retrogression of the rural communities.

There are those who believe that the great rise of prices of food products will attract the attention of those about to leave the farm and induce them to remain for economic reasons. It does not seem clear, however, that such is likely to be the case, first because the rise of prices of farm products has gone hand in hand with increased price of all the things which the farmer has to buy, and furthermore it has not affected the scarcity of labor, which is one of the serious problems throughout the entire farming region of the United States and Canada.

The more one considers this whole question, the more fully one is persuaded that the problem of reaching the boy born on the farm, training him into a successful agent for a new scientific business of farming, and making him a factor in the conservation of resources, is inextricably connected with the larger problem of the betterment of social and economic conditions of rural life. No plan which fails to take into account this large question is going to succeed in keeping farmers' sons in great numbers on the farm. The attitude of the agricultural colleges themselves to this question is interesting. They have long ago realized that this problem was not one of college education, but they have sought to minister to it, in some degree at least, by various devices,—short courses given during the winter, bulletins sent to the farmers, and by having the professors in various departments of agricultural study visit farmers' institutes. All these attempts, however, have not affected the situation in any large way.

Two conclusions seem to be evident in the somewhat hazy atmosphere in which the whole question now lies. First, that some form of industrial and business coöperation amongst farmers must precede, or at least accompany, any effort at the general training of men for farming. The isolation of the farmer makes a great difficulty in the way of trade education. It is far more difficult to train men under such conditions than when they are gathered together in a shop or factory as machinists or mechanics.

The experience of Sir Horace Plunkett in Ireland would seem to indicate that the road to universal technical training for farmers is to be had through some form of industrial coöperation. To bring about this will be needed some other organization than that of a college and its staff of professors.

Secondly, in order to accomplish the training of the farmer, the agricultural college must be supplemented by local educational efforts. Just what form these efforts should assume does not yet seem clear. Unquestionably local trade schools will serve the purpose in certain localities. In other localities these should be supplemented by demonstration farms, such as have been suggested by Mr. James J. Hill and others. Probably in the main the local training-place, which need not be a very expensive plant to maintain, would consist of a trade school and a demonstration farm. The distinction between such a demonstration farm and the experiment station of the college ought to be kept well in mind. There is no need in any state for more than one station for agricultural experimentation and agricultural research. Such an experiment station is expensive to conduct and calls for a high order of ability in the men who are to carry it on. Demonstration stations, however, setting forth the results which have been worked out in the experiment station, may be maintained for much less expense, and serve the purpose not of original research, but of spreading the knowledge of that research.

Fundamentally it may be said that the problem of the farm and of the improvement and conservation of the soil is clearly one calling for leadership of a high order. In this movement those who direct the agricultural college can take a large part, but it will require the coöperation of the business man, of the statesman, of the publicist, and of the farmer himself to work out the solution. It is more difficult to distribute the fruits of science, to make them effective instruments in the hands of the great multitude, than it is to win them first hand. How to bring to the rural population of the United States technical and financial efficiency, together with social contentment, is perhaps the most difficult problem of our democracy. It will not be solved by the schoolmaster unaided. The best thought of the nation will be needed for its solution, but it must be solved, for on its successful working out hang our future prosperity and our national happiness.

Meantime the agricultural college will contribute best to its solution by doing well the work of a college and frankly acknowledging its own limitations.

TWO SIGNIFICANT EFFORTS AT EDUCATIONAL COÖRDINATION

THE reports of the Foundation have called attention many times to the harm done to education by the rivalries of institutions, both those on private endowment and those supported by taxation. Sometimes this competition is carried on between institutions of higher learning supported by the same state. In some states there is a

three-cornered contest between the state university, the agricultural college, and the normal school or the school of mines. The state governments are slowly awakening to an appreciation of the expense, the unnecessary duplication, and the neglect of true educational purposes involved in such rivalries, and a number of legislatures are considering some plan whereby the institutions of higher education may be coordinated into a consistent system of state education in which the separate institutions shall be cooperating parts of one general plan, rather than unrelated competing institutions.

The most interesting effort in this direction is that inaugurated in the state of Iowa by the last legislature. In this state the rivalry between the state university and the college of agriculture and mechanic arts has been most sharp. In addition, the Iowa State Normal School, the name of which was changed in 1909 to the Iowa Teachers College, added an undergraduate department and became a state teachers' college with the power to confer the ordinary collegiate degrees. For the last fiscal year these three institutions received from the state and general government the following sums:

The State University of Iowa	\$572,478
The Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts	423,625
The Teachers College	190,294
Total	\$1,186,397

This situation was considered carefully by the last legislature of Iowa under the leadership of able and thoughtful men. The outcome was a bill which undertook to establish a régime which would abolish useless duplication, the temptations to unworthy standards, the competition for students, and competitive log-rolling in the legislature.

The important features of the bill are the following:

(1) The board of regents and the boards of trustees respectively of the state university, the college of agriculture and mechanic arts, and the normal school went out of existence on the first day of July, 1909, and on the same date full power to manage the three institutions was vested in a single board, known as the Iowa State Board of Education.

(2) The board of education consists of nine members nominated by the governor and confirmed by the senate. No nomination shall be confirmed by the senate until referred to a committee of five, not more than three of whom shall be of one party. Members serve for a period of six years. Only one alumnus of each of the three institutions may be members of the board at one time. Not more than five shall be members of one political party.

(3) The powers of the board with respect to all three institutions include all the powers delegated to any board of trustees, including the power to select presidents and professors, to fix compensation, to supervise the finances, and, in general, to govern the three institutions.

(4) This board is not allowed compensation except for days actually spent in meet-

ings, which cannot exceed sixty in one year. For such time the members receive seven dollars a day and the expenses of travel.

(5) A most important feature of the bill provides for the appointment of what is called in the bill "A Finance Committee." This committee is appointed by the board from outside its own membership. It consists of three members, of whom one is chairman (called president) and another secretary of the committee, the latter also acting as secretary of the board. The members of the finance committee are salaried officers who spend their whole time in the work of the board and are the actual administrative officers of the board.

The first state board, which took office July first of the present year, is formed of intelligent and progressive men. Of the nine members two are lawyers, two are bankers, two are successful business men, one is an engineer, one an architect, and one an editor and proprietor of a newspaper. Six are college graduates or have taken the larger part of a college course, and all are men who have been seriously interested in education. Upon the new board one member of each of the old boards was chosen. The board has in turn selected a capable and conscientious finance committee. The experiment therefore starts under favorable auspices.

The new board has wisely begun its work by a study of the conditions and has made it clear to the separate institutions that its mission is not to introduce a parsimonious economy in education, but to see that the state gets full return for every dollar invested and to see further that no part of this money is devoted to the furtherance of institutional rivalry at the expense of the general educational interests of the state. Iowa is rich. It can afford to support generously not only its elementary schools and high schools, but also its higher institutions of learning. Furthermore, the people of the state believe in education, and are willing to pay for it. If this board can deliver these institutions from the rivalries of the past and from the temptation to low standards and to political influences, and coördinate the three institutions into serving effectively the state system of education, it will have accomplished one of the most notable educational tasks of our generation, and will receive the gratitude of each one of these institutions and of the people of Iowa.

To achieve this result will be no simple task. It will call for wise judgment, for expert educational knowledge, for patience, and for courage. To accomplish the end sought, not only the members of the finance committee, but the members of the board must give time and thought to the state's educational problems. No citizen of an American commonwealth has been called to a more interesting or more important duty than have the members of the Iowa State Board of Education. They will have to deal sooner or later not only with the ambitions of rival institutions and of shortsighted individuals, but with the sentimental loyalty of alumni and the clashing interests of different localities. It will be part of the work of this board to train the people of Iowa to a new educational patriotism whose ideal is not devotion to a single institution, but to the education of the whole people.

It is clear that such a board will be compelled to face some questions whose decision at this time may be very different from what such a decision would have been with a clear educational field. For example, no such board in charge of these institutions would have permitted two rival schools of engineering to grow up, one at the university, the other at the state college of agriculture. To discontinue either one of these schools at this time, with its costly equipment, is, however, another matter. Whatever decision the board may reach in such a question, at least these fundamental principles would seem to be clear: Wherever two such efforts are maintained they should cease to compete; they should exact the same standards of admission, and those who conduct them should cooperate with regard to their aims, having primarily in view the educational interests of the state as a whole. On the other hand, in the distinctive field which each institution occupies, the highest efficiency should be equally insisted upon. For example, the University of Iowa is situated in a small city. To conduct a first-class medical school in such a place is difficult, at least for the two clinical years. This difficulty should be faced frankly by the board, and met, and the state should be clearly informed as to the cost of a modern medical school. There is no excuse for the state to conduct any other than a first-class modern medical school, one comparable, for example, with that of the University of Michigan or of the University of Virginia, both of which are in small towns.

The state board will find one of its most difficult problems in the normal school. This institution has been the recipient of large appropriations. It has developed into a combination of a teachers' college and an undergraduate arts college. Meantime, the facilities for the training of grammar school and of high school teachers are far below the needs of the state.

The work of this board for the next few years will be watched with the keenest interest, and its success in dealing with these and similar questions will be an inspiration to all other states where like problems wait not only a solution, but in most cases wait any serious attempt at solution on the part of those responsible for state governments.

A similar effort at coordination of state educational activities is to be seen in the recent abolition of the old state board of education of Massachusetts and of the commission on industrial education, and the creation of a new board of education whose function it will be to deal with both general and technical education. The chairman of the new board is a lawyer of national standing, a man of the highest character and ability and profoundly interested in the problems of education. It is a fortunate commonwealth which can call to its service such a citizen. The passing of the old board of education of Massachusetts removes a familiar landmark in education. It has existed for over seventy years, and Horace Mann was its inspirer and first executive officer. Its work has been in the past of an epoch-making character. To-day it is merged into the new board on account of the pressure of new educational problems. The work of this board, unlike that of Iowa, will not have to do specifically with higher education.

The administrative feature of these two boards are similar. Each consists of nine members appointed by the governor. The executive officers of the Iowa board are provided for in a finance committee consisting of three members, one of whom is the president; the executive officers of the Massachusetts board consist of a commissioner of education and two deputy commissioners, one of whom shall be specially qualified to deal with industrial education.

The work of this board and of this commission in Massachusetts will be watched with great interest. Industrial education in America to-day is at a formative stage. The talk concerning it is vague and generally fails to distinguish between technical subjects taught in an ordinary school and trade education. If the Massachusetts board and its commissioner first make clear these distinctions, and then set the example of a state system of education in which trade education is articulated with the schools for general education, the new board will fairly rival the fame of the old Massachusetts state board of education.

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PART IV
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

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HOWEVER clearly one may recognize the fact that the college is primarily an intellectual, moral, and social agent, it is nevertheless true that efficiency in these directions goes hand in hand with a clear recognition of financial obligations and limitations. An honest and open business administration of the college has a very real relation to its educational sincerity and efficiency, a fact not always clearly recognized. Still less generally is it appreciated that the college will be less commercial and less worldly when it frankly faces its financial responsibilities.

In view of this underlying principle the better colleges and universities publish complete financial statements of their operations, but this practice is confined to a small number of American institutions. Of the one thousand institutions calling themselves colleges and universities in the United States and Canada only about ten per cent frankly account to the public for the moneys which they receive.

Even where such reports are published, however, it often happens that they furnish meagre information to the trustee or to the student of education. For example, all state universities are compelled by law to publish a complete statement of their expenditures. Many institutions comply with this by printing a list of all the vouchers paid during the year. Such a statement, while complying with the law, gives no real knowledge concerning the wisdom or unwisdom of the expenditures, nor does it afford any basis for comparing the work of one college with the work of another. In order that this may be done, the separate items of expenditure must be grouped under significant headings.

The question at once arises, and it is a crucial one, What are the significant items of expense of a college? What grouping of the numerous items of expenditure will give some fair estimate of the character of the college's method of expending its money?

It is clear that the answer to this inquiry is fundamental, and that it cannot be given wholly from the standpoint of an accountant. There is no gain to be had by presenting a series of statistics unless they warrant some conclusion concerning the operations which the expenditures represent.

It seems clear, however, that a group of men composed in part of college officers and teachers, in part of the financial trustees responsible for administration, could agree upon such items as are significant. For example, a trustee of the college, as well as a student of education, would alike desire to know what part of the income of the college is spent in the payment of teachers' salaries, and what salaries the various grades of teachers receive.

Again, each of these would desire to know what the expense of a given department is and how much of this expense went into the employment of teachers, how much into laboratory or library maintenance. Another question which is a vital one in American education, and concerning which nothing can be learned from the in-

specification of the treasurers' reports of our universities, is the relative cost of that part of the university's work which goes to teaching and that part of it which goes to research. Assuming that \$20,000 was spent in a given department, it would be of great value to know how much of this went to support teaching work, how much to the work of research, and to know further what is included under research and what is included under teaching.

In pursuance of these general considerations there has been prepared in the offices of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching a form of financial statement which has been submitted to a number of college officers and trustees, as well as to public accountants. The form which finally meets with general agreement will be issued in a bulletin, and it is hoped that this statement, upon which much thought has been expended and which has received the approval of many trustees and college officers, may commend itself to general use in the colleges and the universities. Its use will not involve elaborate bookkeeping, but merely such a separation of the items of expense as will enable the treasurer in making his report to segregate them into those groups which seem, upon the common judgment of the men most interested, to be the significant items of college expense. The Foundation further desires to urge upon all colleges the absolute duty of presenting in some form or other a statement of their business transactions. No college has a claim to the public support which neglects this obvious duty.

COLLEGE ADVERTISING

ONE of the factors of American college and university management of rapid growth in recent years is the practice of systematic advertising. Under this term are not included the customary newspaper notices of examinations, dates of beginnings of terms, and similar information printed for the convenience of the public, but those publications whose distinctive object is to catch the eye of the possible student and in the end to attract him to a particular institution. Such advertising matter appears under several forms, but usually as circulars and pamphlets printed and distributed by the college, or paid advertisements in papers and magazines. All of these agencies, as used by the better colleges, have at bottom a good purpose and no doubt a certain amount of good comes from them. The practice has, however, assumed in recent years proportions which no one could have anticipated. There are institutions of learning which live only by advertising. Advertising is in large measure responsible for the presence in the colleges of a great number of ill prepared students who otherwise would be in local schools. Some consideration of the history and growth of the practice is, therefore, not without value.

The last number of *Who's Who in America* contains formal advertisements from some twenty of the leading colleges and universities of the United States, including

institutions in all parts of the country, both those on private foundation and those supported by taxation. In addition to these the same publication contains advertisements of over three hundred other educational institutions, including colleges, military schools, secondary schools, schools of business, schools of expression, of dentistry, gymnastics, law, medicine, music, physical education, piano tuning, science, technology, and theology.

It is of some interest to note the particular things which these twenty well known institutions refer to in their advertisements. In every case some mention is made of the curriculum; fourteen announce the degrees offered; twelve give the library facilities; nine the advantages to be found in physical training and athletics; eight the equipment, or the physical plant; eight also offer an historical account of the institution; two the requirements for admission; two the number in the instructing staff; two an account of the publications of the institution; two the control or government of the institution; and one each the list of distinguished alumni, the names of the board of trustees, the advantages of location, and the moral influence. Amherst College gives information on twelve of these topics, while the Armour Institute is content with a statement of the curriculum and of the degrees granted. The usual range of the advertisements is from five to eight topics. One is accompanied by an illustration.

The sums which the stronger institutions spend upon paid advertising varies between wide limits. Only a few institutions print financial statements in such form as to show exactly what this expenditure is. Where such statements appear in treasurers' reports, therefore, it is almost impossible to ascertain whether they refer to the regular catalogues or to distinctive advertising literature.

The state universities as a rule have dealt but sparingly with paid advertisements. One of these, however, issued this year an unusual advertisement in the form of an old-fashioned broadside, neatly printed in black and red. "The best investment for the state," the broadside reads, "is the education of all its citizens to their highest efficiency." The earning power of a man with college training is then compared with the earning power of a man with only elementary school training, and the value of the one life over the other is estimated at forty thousand dollars. The poster concludes: "But an education will not only increase his earning capacity. It will help him to clearer thinking, to purer feeling, to stronger willing. Literature, architecture, friendship, music, nature, will speak to him in more varied and finer tones. It will give him a clearer vision, a wider horizon, and help him to a more satisfying life."

The state universities have generally sought for a constituency among the youth of their own states, and their advertising methods have been in the main indirect. The high school inspector who represents the state institutions is sometimes more of an advertising agent than an impartial inspector, and this is accentuated in those states where the state university and the agricultural college are rivals and each has

an inspector in the field. This abuse, however, ought not to obscure the fact that there is no other service which a state university can render which is more clearly its duty, or which counts more in the educational progress of a whole state, than an honest, efficient, and discriminating inspection of secondary schools. Former President Jesse rendered a notable service in Missouri in this field.

In the present crowded condition of the state universities of the central west one reads with some degree of wonder in a single edition of a New York paper formal advertisements of the Universities of Wisconsin, Michigan, and Illinois.

Paid advertising by old and famous institutions of higher learning is apparently distinctively an American practice. One can scarcely imagine Balliol or Pembroke or the Universities of Berlin or Paris sending out the sort of advertising literature which Harvard and Chicago distribute.

There is a form of advertising which is in use in English institutions of higher learning of which we have no knowledge in this country,—the advertising of professorships in order to bring to the attention of a wide circle of scholars the advantages of a particular chair. For example, the London papers have contained during the past summer regular advertisements of the chairs to be filled in October in the newly created national University of Ireland, and of similar chairs in the colleges at Cork, at Galway, and in University College, Dublin. The salaries and emoluments of the various chairs are stated in detail—a professorship of metaphysics carries an annual salary of £700, a professorship of the theory and practice of education, £400, and the like. The widest publicity is given by this means to the places to be filled and the fullest opportunity to all scholars to present statements of their qualifications, together with testimonials as to their fitness. This method of attaining a larger choice in the filling of professorships has never commended itself to American colleges. The spectacle of a well known scholar—like Clerk Maxwell, for example—presenting himself as an active candidate and filing testimonials from his friends and colleagues has been rather distasteful to American ideas of scholarly dignity. And yet, after all, it may well be questioned whether the practice of paid advertising of a university is any more consistent with academic modesty. The ultimate justification of the practice rests upon its actual success in widening the choice of men for a given professorship. The British habit of advertising for professors is certainly more frank and less commercial in its tendency than our habit of advertising for students. The latter practice has grown enormously in the past ten years, and has developed from occasional sporadic notices in local papers to bureaus of publicity and systematic advertising. The effect of this development is worthy of some study, not merely on account of its rapid growth, but also in order to estimate the quality of students thus drawn into the colleges and the effect upon the colleges themselves.

Harvard College appears to have led in this matter, as in many others. The first advertisement of Harvard in the *Atlantic Monthly* was printed in February, 1870, and at that time occasioned much discussion as being a departure from old-time ideals

of academic dignity. Since that day the habit has spread, the smaller and younger colleges taking their cue from the older institutions and painting the advantages of the college training in colors more and more glowing. A college which cannot equal Harvard's equipment finds it quite possible to outdo the university in its advertisements. The youth in the small town finds, therefore, such bids as these: "College Better than University;" "Finest College Spirit;" "Every College Activity;" "New Science Hall has six lecture rooms, three laboratories, engine and dynamo;" "Long-established and dominant tone of culture;" "Proved power to make scholars and noblemen. . . Studies for engineers, lawyers, doctors, business men, scientists, teachers, preachers, completes the circle of desirability — is ideal;" "Education par excellence;" "Glorious location." The president of one college states in his last annual report: "About two million copies of the following ad have been printed in our church papers"!

A college in Virginia offers in its catalogue the following "reductions:"

"1. We give to each young man who expects to preach, and has begun public work in some way, \$7 per term of his tuition.

"2. To any parent who has twelve children, ten of them living, two of them in the college at the same time, one free literary tuition will be given; if only one is sent, one half tuition will be given."

One of the most common educational advertisements to catch the eye is that of the University of Chicago in connection with its correspondence department, which reads as follows:

"HOME STUDY. THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO OFFERS Correspondence Courses in over 80 subjects for Teachers, Writers, Social Workers, Ministers, Physicians, Bankers, and students desiring to finish either a High School or College course. One half the work for a Bachelor's degree may thus be done. THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO. Div. W. Chicago, Ill."

The suggestion contained in the last two lines concerning a degree earned in large measure by correspondence is rather more of a bid for candidates for degrees than is made by other institutions of corresponding dignity and scholarly standing.

Among the interesting advertisements sent out by educational agencies are the pamphlets and leaflets issued by denominational boards of education. All of these agencies show increasing appreciation of the need for differentiation of institutions as well as for a closer contact with the general system of education.

Perhaps the most remarkable publication of this kind is the last pamphlet of the Presbyterian College Board, entitled *Our Presbyterian Colleges*. The leaflet contains illustrated advertisements of the Presbyterian colleges scattered across the continent. The reasons why students should attend these colleges are given therein with great fulness. The statement begins: "It (the board) aims to have every Presbyterian college as nearly as may be a copy of the first College of the Apostles."

The reasons are stated in detail why colleges should remain denominational. Among these some prominence is given to the following: "Denominational connection tends to limit the number of colleges and to eliminate the least promising."

This statement is so extraordinary in view of our educational history that it seems worth while to quote the reasons given in its support.

"Local real estate movements tend constantly to multiply the number of colleges. It is rarely denominational pride or sectarian feeling that starts a college, but purely local real estate reasons. Most colleges proposed in the west will go to the denomination offering the most. The College Board for twenty-five years has entertained scores of such offers, rarely denominational in origin. It was so successful in preventing our church from accepting such offers that did not promise well, while it was named the Board of Aid for Colleges, that it was stigmatized in the west by disappointed promoters as 'The Board of Hindrance for Colleges.' It has eliminated three Presbyterian colleges from a certain state that cannot yet support one; in several states and territories it has secured, sometimes after years of constant effort, the union of institutions that could not hope for successful separate existence. It has endeavored, with the approval of successive General Assemblies, to have a state get one college in sound condition and fairly endowed before undertaking to support a second. It has pursued this policy not because it would not be an advantage to the church and to the state to have several good colleges, but solely because it is rarely in the power of any state to build up more than one college of a single denomination at a time so that it may reach a satisfactory condition."

These words are most illuminating as to the whole process by which unnecessary colleges are inaugurated. For whatsoever the Presbyterian College Board has done to unite weak efforts, and for whatever virtue it has shown in refusing the offers of the real estate promoters, all who are interested in education will give it due credit. One might well wish that this policy had been fully established before the board took over the so-called Westminster University of Denver, its most recent acquisition and duly advertised in this booklet. At the time when this was done Denver was already oversupplied with colleges. Among these was a Methodist university certainly entitled to be considered a representative of Christian education. I very much fear that the Westminster College is not a college of the Apostles, and that it crept into the fold at one of those unfortunate moments when denominational ambition and real estate promotion temporarily got the upper hand.

Even a superficial examination of the practice of advertising shows that it has consequences of no mean order for the college and for education.

One of these has just been alluded to, namely, that in the competition by advertising the weakest college can outshine the strongest university. Thus, the Valparaiso University, which has recently begun to put advertisements into the magazines, having apparently been corrupted by the example of the older institutions, has a more alluring advertisement than some of the greatest universities. It boasts a larger enrolment

and offers to meet the student at any stage of his education for less money than any other bidder. And yet this institution, notwithstanding the fact that it has given educational help to many who otherwise might never have got outside their home facilities, is not a university at all. It exists on the inequalities of our present educational organization. Unfortunately it is undertaking to do many things which it can only do badly; but in the advertising competition it has every advantage, for it keeps a department store.

No youth seeking a college education and no man looking toward the profession of law or of medicine ought to allow himself to be influenced in any measure by paid advertisements. It is impossible for any candidate for the college or the medical school to discriminate between the advertisements of the worthy and of the unworthy. To select the college or the medical school which one proposes to attend on the basis of paid advertisements is like selecting a wife through a correspondence bureau.

Another objection to formal advertising lies in the tendency to emphasize and advertise the weakest part of an institution. This is the natural function of direct advertising whose purpose is to draw students to the courses which are not full. For example, after the Lawrence Scientific School changed from a school of science under its original teachers to a distinctive engineering school, it remained for a number of years a weak school, but during all this period it was the most advertised part of the university. When one sees a Harvard advertisement to-day he is not likely to find mentioned in it the strong and well established parts of the university, but the newly inaugurated school of business administration which has not yet found itself, but which attracts possible students with the inviting claim that "training is specialized to prepare for the lines of commerce and manufacturing," an advertisement strongly suggestive of the correspondence schools.

University publications under the advertising stimulus tend to assume more and more the nature of advertising reminders, not dignified or scholarly statements of the work and resources of a particular institution. Let any alumnus go over the literature he has received in the last year from his alma mater and see how much of it brings back the serious and scholarly side of university life and how much of it belongs to the side of promotion.

Still more far-reaching and influential is the advertising habit in affecting the organization of the university and its attitude to its own alumni and to the public. Most advertising is indirect. Representatives of the university travel over the country and meet the pupils in secondary schools. University professors are sent on long journeys to meet possible students. The alumni are organized into groups which in large measure drop the natural and desirable social relations of alumni and become what are known in the west as "booster" clubs, their real reason for existence being to bring students and money to their university.

Again, an employment bureau is organized and the student is urged to come to a

given university on the ground that a position will be found for him upon graduation. All of these advertising methods add one more tendency making toward the commercial, rather than the scholarly, life.

The question of advertising comes down in the end to one not alone of good taste, but of far-sighted policy. It was no lack of experience in the world which prompted the founder of the Leland Stanford Junior University to direct that no part of his gift should be spent in advertising. Most institutions have taken it up, if they have gone into it at all, without very much thought of the extent to which it may be carried and often in response to the solicitations of advertising agents. It is when one comes to view the practice at large and notes the effect of the development of the advertising habit in the institutions themselves that he begins to have doubts as to its wisdom. There can be no question that it has lured into the colleges many men who were unfit. Its most glaring abuses are to be seen in the proprietary medical schools which live in many cases off the wholly unfit students secured in answer to advertisements. Advertising so far as the student is concerned has been almost wholly bad.

On the whole I am inclined to doubt whether any advertising of a true university pays in the large sense other than that which comes from the presence of great scholars and teachers, the possession of adequate equipment, and the attendance of a homogeneous, alert, earnest student body. This conviction is reflected to-day in the attitude of the more thoughtful and far-sighted university presidents.

THE FUNCTION OF THE COLLEGE TRUSTEE

No thorough-going examination of American college and university organization and administration at this epoch can fail to take into account the function of the college trustee in university management. Up to this time there has been no general consensus as to what the function of such an officer is. In the details of the present report may be found examples of a wide range of conception as to what the trustees of an institution of higher learning ought to do. In some institutions—such, for example, as the State University of Oklahoma—the board of regents construe their functions to mean the detailed administration of the institution, including the selection of professors and passing upon the minute items of college administration. On the other hand, a number of institutions are mentioned in which the board of trustees occupy the position of dummy directors. They come once a year to meetings, give no personal attention to the affairs of the institution, and accept without question the recommendations of the president.

It seems clear that neither of these conceptions of university trusteeship can be fruitful or helpful. The trustee of the university is not an executive officer, but a part of the board of government. As such he is charged with the consideration of the general problems of the institution, and particularly with the duty of conferring

with and assisting the president. When he undertakes to do the work of the president, he goes outside of his legitimate duty.

It is equally clear that the dummy trustee is of little value. The purpose of a board of trustees is that the decision of questions of general policy shall not rest upon the judgment of one man, but upon the common judgment of a number of men who are thinking seriously and carefully concerning the affairs of the institution. An individual who sits upon such a board, giving no time and no thought to the college problems, feeling no responsibility for what is done or what is left undone, occupies a false position. No man of character and of force ought to be willing to remain in such a relation. Either he should give the time and attention, or retire.

Somewhere between these two conceptions is to be found the true function of a college trustee. Such a man will in the first place give to the affairs of the institution of which he is a trustee serious study. He will inform himself as to the circumstances of the institution, its needs, its purpose, its reason for existence, and its opportunities for the future. In the light of this information he will then give to the president and to his colleagues his best judgment concerning all questions which may arise. These questions will be in the main questions of policy, not questions of detail.

There are certain questions in which trustees may, of course, render special service, such, for example, as determining the financial policy of an institution. It is somewhat remarkable that in the great number of cases the business men, who form the bulk of trustees of colleges, have concerned themselves but little with the financial administration of their institutions. This has been left almost wholly to the president, and yet it is a question upon which their judgment ought to be of great value, provided again that judgment is given after serious study,—such study, for example, as one of these men would give to the affairs of a corporation of which he was a director and in which he was financially interested. The function, therefore, of a trustee would seem to be to make himself by thought and study familiar with the affairs and the problems of the institution, and then to put at the disposal of the president and of his colleagues the results of his examination, acting always as the colleague of the president, not as his substitute.

Not less important than the inquiry concerning the duties of the trustee is this question: What sort of man should be selected for these duties?

As a rule insufficient attention is given to this matter except in the older and stronger institutions. The great mass of colleges choose trustees with little regard to their fitness, and generally in the hope of some financial help. This motive has been largely instrumental in placing so many dummy trustees in college boards. The election of a man of great wealth, absorbed in multifarious enterprises, or of a governor of a state, or of a judge of a high court, to a board of trustees, to whose duties he can give no attention, is to lower the standard of trustee responsibility.

In general, the fit persons for such posts are educated men, interested in edu-

cation without being educational experts. A board of college trustees composed exclusively of educational experts would probably be no more efficient than a jury of lawyers. The trustee does not sit on a college board as an educational expert, but as an educated man interested in the work of education and offering the service of his trained judgment to the president in the solution of the problems which arise in the college administration.

It has been a weakness of college boards heretofore that a considerable proportion of their trustees were not themselves college-trained men. In pioneer days in the western states this was doubtless necessary. To-day, however, it ought to be generally possible to secure as trustees men who are not only interested in education and in the institution, but who understand college problems. It is the viewpoint of such men which the college desires and needs.

It is also true that the importance of the service of truly qualified men in such places has hitherto been seldom adequately recognized. There is no greater service which a citizen of a state or a community can render or which is better worth while than intelligent, careful, devoted service upon the board of trustees of a useful college or university. It is a plan which calls for the highest qualities of devotion, intelligence and fair-mindedness, and above all of sound judgment, and the man who fills it renders to his generation a service of the highest civic value. No small part of the progress and influence of Harvard University in the last quarter century has been due to the presence on its board of government of such men. Dr. Charles P. Wolcott, preëminently an example of this type of citizenship, has rendered to the university of which he has been so long a member a service the value of which to education approaches that of the great college presidents. One of the pressing needs of our states and communities is to grow trustees of such qualifications.

Hitherto little thought has been given as to the most effective size of such a governing body. Boards have been chosen in many cases upon the theory that the more men put upon it, the more help the college will obtain.

The experience of the last three decades points the way to one of two forms of government. A most successful one is a self-perpetuating, small board of not more than five or seven members, whose acts are reviewed by a larger and changing body of trustees. This is the Harvard method of government, the actual governing body being a corporation of seven and the reviewing body consisting of thirty-two overseers.

A second form which has proven fairly successful is the moderately small body of trustees of not more than seven to fifteen, who elect their successors. The danger in all small self-perpetuating bodies is the selection of men on the ground of personal likes or dislikes. Three or four men become influential in such a board. They are strongly inclined to select their own companions or friends. As a result the board unconsciously loses its representative character and may come to represent either a group of very old men or a particular group of men and their friends. In a few cases such boards have come to represent family interests and a strongly developed

tendency to nepotism. In certain communities in the south there is strong feeling against a self-perpetuating board on this very ground. Notwithstanding these tendencies, the self-perpetuating, fairly small board has proven on the whole one of the most efficient bodies for the government of an institution of learning. Much depends on having a board small enough to have actual responsibility, and yet large enough to be fairly representative.

A third form of board of control which is beginning to show good results is the board of regents of certain state universities. These boards are generally small, consisting, as a rule, of not more than six or eight men. They are elected for terms varying from three to six years, or are appointed by the governor and senate for similar terms. As a result the board changes, but changes slowly, always having enough old members in it to preserve the knowledge of past administration. The qualifications for these places have also of late years been more strongly emphasized than those of most trusteeships, and it has been generally assumed in the cases of the stronger universities that the regent, to be elected or to be appointed, must possess the qualifications of fair education, sound judgment, and freedom from political partisanship. While endowed institutions are not likely to assume exactly this type of governing board, it nevertheless is true that the freshening of the board by these gradual changes is a feature of college government which may well be introduced, as indeed it has been introduced in the case of many institutions by the election of a small proportion of trustees from the alumni.

As matters stand to-day, it is not too much to say that one of the serious problems of university conduct is to be found in a more definite conception of the function of the trustee and of the kind of man who ought to be chosen for this office.

PRINCIPLES OF COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION

MANY of the facts of the year's educational progress alluded to in the foregoing report are significant as to the principles upon which our American university administration ought to rest. In these pages have been references to professors in colleges of high standing who have been required to resign; to presidents and professors in state universities who have been dismissed on personal or political grounds; and to professors in a large number of other institutions who have been forced to retire against their will. All of these things suggest limitations of the freedom both of the president and of the teacher which we do not like to consider a part of our educational régime.

On the other hand, there are intimations that both boards of trustees and executive officers of colleges find themselves constantly called upon to deal with men who are clearly unequal to their tasks, and whose further continuance in position is at the expense of scholarship and of the student body.

This is the old question of all university administration. How can academic se-

curity and freedom be coupled with a fair scrutiny of the efficiency of the men who are concerned? The question is a little different from what it is in England and in Germany because of our different educational organization in institutions of higher learning. Our institutional administration is a more centralized one; the president has larger powers and is more directly responsible for the efficiency and well-being of the whole institution than is the case of any one officer in a European university. These considerations suggest that our organization will be subjected to a somewhat closer scrutiny than it has hitherto had,—a scrutiny dealing with both academic freedom and scholarly efficiency.

Out of the mass of facts which have been referred to in this report, the following underlying principles seem to emerge as the basis upon which the study of the American university must proceed.

First, while the American university president will have larger powers than the chief officer of foreign universities, these powers will go hand in hand with the independence and security alike of president and of professor. In order that this may be accomplished, the appointment and the dismissal of teachers must rest on some wider action than the recommendation of a single individual.

Second, in the interest of efficiency and of the whole cause of education, the individual who looks toward the career of the college professor must go through a probationary term, in which his appointment shall be for a limited time. This practice is already in operation in many colleges and universities, assistant professors being appointed usually for a period of three or five years, this period being looked upon as a probationary period during which the man's fitness must be proven before he is taken into a secured position.

Third, the college professor must in the future submit more directly than in the past to some scrutiny of his work and of his results, as well as to some examination of the extent of his coöperation with other men in the institution. The absence of any effective scrutiny of the work of the university professor has been a marked weakness in American institutions. To obtain an intelligent and fair scrutiny is no easy matter, and yet it is clear that some such examination must be made. It is the weakness of all organizations which look toward intellectual and spiritual results that they tend to evade the accountability which falls to every other human organization. Just how to provide such scrutiny of the educational results and methods of an institution is one of the problems of the next ten years. In German universities there has in the past existed a sort of automatic check on the work of a professor through the presence of the *privat-docent*. A professor who grew weary was sure to find alongside him an alert, able, energetic, younger colleague who lectured on the same subject and to whom the students were sure to resort if the older man's work deteriorated. We have no such check in American university organization. It is tacitly assumed that once a man is at the head of a department, the work of that department will be rightly conducted and coördinated with other departments without further

inquiry, and the status of the work must become very bad indeed before a reorganization can be effected. The development of effective responsibility within the college itself is alike in the interest of the professor and of the cause of education, and to this development the American teacher himself should lend his best effort.

THE COLLEGE REGISTRATION OFFICE

As American colleges have grown, the administrative machinery for their conduct has necessarily become more complex. In the stronger colleges and universities this administrative machinery includes a registration office conducted by an officer designated for that purpose. In the larger universities the registrar gives his whole time to the work of this office; in the smaller colleges the details are looked after by the president or a dean, or by a professor who is willing to shoulder an administrative load.

In this, as in all other matters which have to do with administration, it is not easy to steer midway between too much machinery and too little. The facts are, however, that while in some of the larger institutions the registration office deals in too many blanks and collects some useless information, in the main this work in both large and small institutions is done in an indifferent and unsystematic way. Occasionally the registration records are to be found in a shoe-box under the president's table, incomplete except as helped out by the president's recollections. There is no very general agreement as to just what facts a well conducted college should gather concerning its students and in what way these can be most simply recorded. Some colleges have no record whatsoever of the circumstances of admission of their students, and keep on file no evidence that the requirements for admission have been complied with. In many colleges the simpler forms of registration and filing have not been introduced, and much labor is wasted in caring for material which, under modern methods, can be handled in a very simple and effective manner.

It seems clear also that while the registration office and the registrar ought not to be burdened with unnecessary details, there are certain facts concerning all matriculated students which ought to be kept on file and accessible to any inquirer entitled to know them.

It goes without saying that every college should keep in a simple and accessible form such facts as show the basis upon which a student is admitted and upon which he is promoted. An efficient and satisfactory registrar's office nearly always accompanies a strict enforcement of the requirements for admission and a careful practice in the promotion of students. I venture to suggest that colleges which have been lacking in this matter can profitably examine some of the simple and more effective forms of registration in use in many colleges, and a distinct gain in uniformity and comparability of registration statistics could be had by some concert of action among

registration offices as to the information which ought to be kept on file and as to the simplest and easiest way of doing this.

It is also to be noted that in many institutions most important educational responsibilities are intrusted to the registrar. In the University of Wisconsin, for example, the registrar passes upon the admission of students, and his decisions are not subject to revision by the faculty. In other institutions the registrar is charged with this duty, but may be overruled by a committee of the faculty.

In a word, there is a very great variation in the functions of this office, and some consideration of the duties which ought to be intrusted to a registrar both in large and small institutions may well be worth while.

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PART V
EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS AND PROGRESS

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THE USE AND LIMITATIONS OF A STANDARD UNIT IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

Two forms of educational organization seem likely to remain permanently in American education: the one supported and controlled by the public, the other supported and controlled by private individuals. The former results in closely organized city and state school systems, the latter in detached institutions of higher grade. In both we have colleges, universities, and technical schools. We would seem to be thus protected against centralized or bureaucratic control, such as in France and in Germany has told too heavily against educational innovation and readjustment. On the other hand, our situation is not free from the defects inherent in its advantages; for while it makes possible variety and emulation, it is liable to result in useless duplication, or an almost commercial competition, in which dilution of values afford one or the other party an advantage for the time being.

The question now is whether without sacrifice of elasticity we can bring into orderly communication the several parts into which our system is broken up. Must an endowed university like Harvard or Vanderbilt, for example, look to special fitting schools, or employ special methods in order to get its clientele, or can it become part of an organization making towards a common end without surrender of individuality? Can the state universities come together on a basis that practically will wipe out state lines by an educational free trade that involves no loss of initiative on the one hand, and no confusion of values on the other?

To establish such comity, we require, in the first place, a simple language which will convey clearly a few fundamental facts. The unit used by the Carnegie Foundation aims to be such a symbol as between colleges, whether state or endowed institutions, and high schools, private or public. It is not mere mechanical standardization. It involves no limitation upon the freedom of either the secondary school or the college. It is simply the effort to find a "counter" for the very relation between secondary school and college which the tendencies of the last twenty-five years have been engaged in formulating. The only part the Foundation has had in this effort has been to express in concrete form the actual usages of the colleges themselves together with the admirable results of the College Entrance Examination Board in unifying these usages.

It is clear that the use of some such unit or counter is an almost inevitable consequence of the acceptance of the four-year high school as a basis of preparation for college. Particularly is this the case if each college is to fix its own entrance requirements instead of accepting the high school diploma as a matriculation paper.

Consider for a moment what the actual performance of the student is upon which the college bases its entrance requirements. The boy enters the high school or academy between the ages of fourteen and sixteen. Experience shows that a youth in the period covered by the high school curriculum can pursue with reasonable thor-

oughness three, or at most four, studies simultaneously. He can expect, therefore, to complete in the four years from fourteen to sixteen such studies. For example, a simple arrangement of such a curriculum for a given year would be Latin, mathematics, English, and history or science, making four units of study for the year's work. A four-year high school course is usually arranged on this basis.

In whatever way it is approached the fact remains that the basis of the college preparation rests upon some fifteen units of study which the high school can hope to furnish, and that any rigidity or mechanical standardization which ensues will arise not out of this fundamental fact, but out of the requirements of the colleges with respect to prescribed subjects for admission. The studies of the secondary school are divided among a number of subjects. For example, three units of work may be given to mathematics, three to English, four to Latin, two to a modern language, one to history and economics, and the like. This is only another way of saying that a student pursuing such a course studies mathematics for three years, English for three years, Latin for four years, modern language for two years, and the like.

The practices of the colleges with respect to the disposal which the student may make of these possible high school studies vary greatly. Some of the colleges prescribe all the high school studies, others prescribe a part, leaving the rest to be chosen from a list of electives. Few colleges accept all the studies which the high school includes in its curriculum. And here is to be found the stress which the secondary school undergoes in serving two functions, that of a general training-place for the great majority who are never to go to college, and that of a fitting-school for the minority who are college bound.

The practical question, therefore, is to choose such a unit as will fairly represent the secondary school work whether the school be in one section of the country or another. Such a unit enables the college to compare secondary schools, but it in no way hampers either the college or the secondary school. Its use will simply express uniformly and concretely that which is now expressed under many notations, a fact which renders difficult the comparison of one secondary school with another.

As the outcome of a recent conference in which Mr. Wilson Farrand, head-master of Newark Academy, and Dean Frederick C. Ferry, of Williams College, representing the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the officers of the Carnegie Foundation, participated, the following statement of the unit is proposed :

A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work.

[This statement is designed to afford a standard of measurement for the work done in secondary schools. It takes the four-year high school course as a basis and assumes that the length of the school year is from thirty-six to forty weeks, that a period is from forty to sixty minutes in length, and that the study is pursued for four or five periods a week; but, under ordinary circumstances, a satis-

factory year's work in any subject cannot be accomplished in less than one hundred and twenty sixty-minute hours, or their equivalent. Schools organized on a different basis can nevertheless estimate their work in terms of this unit.]

The function of this unit is simply to recognize a well ordered high school course. It does not touch essentially pedagogic problems, and it leaves full leeway in the matter of organization and arrangement. For example, algebra, to quadratic equations, may be measured with the same result whether it be pursued twice a week for two years or four times a week for one year. Again, a course of four studies may be arranged on the basis of sixteen recitations a week or upon the basis of twenty recitations a week, the student reciting four or five times a week in each subject. In either arrangement each study pursued throughout the year would be estimated at one unit, provided that the subject be carried to the point designated.

This statement limits to four units the amount of credit possible to attain within a given year, and this provision, in my judgment, is just now a wise safeguard. Many college academies shorten the preparation for college by permitting a boy to carry five or even six full studies throughout the year and thus credit him with five or six units. The Foundation, in reckoning the entrance requirements of colleges having such academies, cannot count any single year at more than four units. In the judgment of leading secondary school teachers, the average boy cannot prepare adequately at one time in more than four full studies, and therefore the stated requirements for admission to a college which is willing to accept inferior preparation are accordingly discounted.

Such a unit being once accepted, the process of calculating in its terms college entrance requirements is natural and easy and, once more, involves no artificial restrictions upon the subjects chosen or the manner of their study. The number of units indicates clearly and at once the relation of the college to the high school, and the numerical value of each indicates its relation to the total high school scheme.

A large per cent of the colleges and universities in all parts of the country have now stated their requirements for admission in terms of such units. The College Entrance Examination Board in April of the present year adopted the Foundation's numerical valuation of each of the subjects in which the board holds examinations. Similarly the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States voted at its meeting, held at Chattanooga last year, to adopt the unit as defined by the Foundation. The use of such a common unit will make for unity and freedom.

www. **ARTICULATION OF HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE**

WHAT we call the American educational system is composed of a number of separate institutions, each originally built up for some specific purpose and without particular reference to any of the others. We find ourselves to-day possessed of elementary schools, a few industrial schools, high schools, private academies, colleges, universities, and professional schools. There must be some one order in which they can be better arranged than in any other; there must be some way of coupling consecutive stages that will form a vestibuled passage and avoid the confusion and waste of a missed or doubtful connection. In a word, regular temporal succession suggests, in the interest of efficiency and economy, genuine educational continuity.

The effort to shape our detached educational agencies into a system, the parts of which support and demand each other, and simultaneously to bring the whole into a more fruitful relation with the problems and strivings of contemporary life, has latterly resulted in the consciousness of maladjustment at various points. Schools of law and of medicine have, for example, begun to ask where they belong in the discipline of a youth whose education has proceeded in an orderly fashion; for that they belong somewhere rather than anywhere is a conviction now forced upon them by consideration both of the student and of the study. But nowhere else is there just now such marked discomfort as at the junction between high school and college. The struggle to perfect articulation at that point is perhaps the most urgent of the problems in readjustment demanded by a comprehensive educational policy.

Historically, the situation is easily understood. Our present point of view is an afterthought. Unforeseen social emergencies arise; we endeavor to meet them not by creating out of hand entirely new agencies and institutions, but by converting to our purpose whatever we find available. The high school and the college were at first independent organizations, so independent that the high school was called the people's college. But the extension of the scope of the college and the increasing frequency with which the high school student was graduated into it suggested and made possible a coöperative relation between them. It is not to be wondered at that some hesitation and confusion have attended the adaptive process. Two types of institutions that have in one section competed for the same body of students, and in another have aimed to do each in its own degree the same sort of service to different groups of the population, do not without friction spontaneously take position in reference to each other, each respecting the integrity of the other and both subordinating themselves to a larger conception.

The concrete evidence of maladjustment is the conditioned and special student of usual college age. The high schools are, of course, manifestly defective. They have not yet found themselves; but the tendency in some quarters to apologize for all the lapses and shortcomings of the individual student on this ground involves a demoralizing presumption. In the first place, many of the shortcomings in question are due

to lack of forethought and industry; and the general tendency of exceptions is to prolong the period during which this lack of forethought and industry will prevail. In the second place, even individual defects due to the high school or to the artificial manner of regulating transition from the high school to the college are not most effectively corrected by indiscriminate suspension of responsibility. The colleges, eager for more students, and pricked by the spur of financial need, easily underrate the retroactive effect of such instances upon the oncoming body of students still in the secondary schools. Their real control of the high school in the work of turning out students capable of performing their subsequent college duty depends not on making exceptions which render it increasingly difficult for the high school master to hold his boys in line, but through holding the school rigidly responsible in the person of the student for whom it vouches.

The fact is that by enlarging the basis of admission the colleges have themselves removed the chief reason for exceptions. Special concessions were in theory well justified as long as we had only the old-fashioned classical high school. The boy not adapted to its peculiar requirements could, with much plausibility, plead for a further opportunity in no wise dependent on its uncongenial routine. But the colleges now tend to concede the sufficiency for their purposes of any well conceived and well conducted high school course. The individual is thus more effectively respected by an appropriate choice of one out of several available curricula than by a capricious exemption from this or that item of a single inelastic scheme. A status has thus come about in which it is possible for both the college and the secondary school to guarantee the fundamental facts of their relationship. The college must play fair with the high school, just as the high school must play fair with the college; and the outcome is solely a question of such team-work. To the extent that arbitrary and illogical exceptions are made, now here, now there, the development of a smoothly working articulation is frustrated and postponed.

The feasibility of a nice adjustment has been already demonstrated. The relationship of the state universities of the west to the secondary school systems of their respective states is in no wise different in principle from the proper relationship between an endowed university and the secondary school system of its own section. Indeed when the secondary schools of the entire country have been homogeneously developed, the Universities of Missouri and of North Dakota, for example, will stand in the same responsive attitude towards the high schools of Tennessee and Connecticut as they now occupy towards those of their respective states. Such interrelation is not only consistent with large liberty for experimentation and adaptation within the secondary school,—it makes for it.

Respect for the integrity of the high school is of recent growth even in the central west. With the exception of the universities of Wisconsin and Minnesota students can still gain admission to the state universities on less than is implied in graduation from a four-year high school. The habit of admitting conditioned students is

extended to the admission of those conditioned in a whole year of high school work, a practice which has been continued in many states in order to articulate with three year high schools.

An examination of the records which I have had made in several state universities shows clearly that the performance of these conditioned students on the average falls far below that of students offering the full preparation.

The situation is less developed in the south. There for many years the college has been both high school and college, and again neither. There was no proper basis for the development of academic education. Vanderbilt University had to create its own feeding schools,—necessarily upon narrow conventional lines. Within the last few years, however, the south has awakened to a realization of its needs. And the country shows no more inspiring educational spectacle to-day than the energy, enthusiasm, and intelligence with which systems of secondary schools, supported partly by local and partly by state taxation, are being developed throughout the southern states. Under such circumstances, the duty of the southern colleges to keep "hands off" is imperative. As long as they cut into the high school field by admitting into college, or so-called college, classes boys and girls who still belong, whether in virtue of age or of performance, to the high school period, so long will they retard the building up of a system on which they can rely. Unfortunately, the entire section abounds in weak "colleges" that can exist only by competing with secondary and even elementary schools. Much therefore depends on educating a public sentiment which will prefer a good high school at home to a poor college at a distance. "Reports show," says Professor William H. Hand in his recent report as inspector of the high schools of South Carolina, "that the colleges of this and near-by states have in their college classes from the schools of this state nearly two hundred pupils from ninth grades, and more than forty pupils from eighth grades. One half the colleges of this state have now last year's tenth grade pupils in their sophomore classes." In the face of the present movement in secondary education in the south, such administration of the college entrance requirements cannot be too severely condemned. The following incident illustrates the present situation.

In a southern town where the high school had hitherto offered only a two-year curriculum, the local authorities built a new and attractive high school building and advanced the curriculum to a three-year course. This action so fired the enthusiasm of the citizens that they united in urging the erection of the school into a four-year high school. To this demand the school authorities interposed the objection that it would be sufficient time to add the fourth year when a class was ready for it. Whereupon six citizens came forward with the offer to recall their sons and daughters from various "colleges," where they were studying the high school subjects of the fourth year, and form a fourth-year class. This offer was accepted, and the six students thus supplied formed the first fourth-year class of their home high school.

Within the last four years the number of four-year high schools in Virginia, in

North Carolina, in Tennessee, has grown astonishingly. The responsibility of the colleges and the state universities of the southern states in the presence of so rapid and auspicious a development is a weighty one. It is important that they nurse this growth by holding it within reasonable limits,—to sincere standards by elevating these standards no faster than they can actually and thoroughly be met, and above all by steadfastly declining to trespass upon the territory which the high school can cover, and will cover, if those whose children are concerned are frankly made to face the high school requirements. The most urgent duty of the state university in the south is therefore to remand to the village or district high school the student who has not fairly met its requirements, and to use its growing power and influence to teach the people at large the meaning of genuine educational differentiation. The present enrolment of these institutions, abounding in special and conditioned students and in over-evaluation of fragmentary high school work, tends to continue rather than to end conditions which the south is now fairly ready to leave behind.

In the east the difficulty of articulation between college and secondary school is connected with the use of written examinations to protect promotion. It is indisputable that these examinations are not conclusive as to the candidate's fitness; hence a logical basis for exceptions. Various influences have, however, resulted in a degree of leniency far exceeding anything that could be justified by the principle in which exceptions originate. The grounds upon which a boy "may be given a chance" have expanded as though a highly varied scheme of entrance requirements did not give him a large number of chances now. And not only is the general organic relation of college and high school sacrificed, when the college fails to uphold the high school, but within special subjects advanced opportunities may, at the discretion of individual instructors, be given to students who have failed to pass in the elementary prerequisite. At Harvard, for example, the committee on admissions may admit a boy conditioned in elementary French; and the instructor in French may then set aside the disqualification thus imposed and allow the student to go on with French, despite the fact that he has failed in the indispensable prerequisite. If, now, a series of examinations is an incomplete method of articulating, such treatment of their results will only further demoralize the situation. The extent to which articulation is thus defeated is evident from the number of conditioned students admitted to those institutions which admit only by examination.

If so considerable a body of students classed as deficient by the examinations deserve admission, it is clear that some other means of regulating admission ought to be devised, for it is impossible to make so many exceptions without demoralizing all parties in interest; and if they do not deserve admission, then the present policy is a blow at the efficiency of the good secondary schools, whether high schools or academies.

To this situation many thoughtful men are sensitive. An interesting experiment was inaugurated at Columbia University with the beginning of the current year.

An officer has been appointed—familiar both with college and secondary school—whose entire time will be given to the matter of admissions and to dealing with candidates for admission. The entrance examination test will, therefore, be supplemented both by personal conference with this officer and by his inspection of the secondary schools from which the candidates come. The outcome of this effort to humanize the written examination and to be in accord with the secondary school will be watched with interest.

Another way of weakening a standard that is nominally equivalent to a four-year high school course is the maintenance by colleges of preparatory courses of their own which are only three years in length. The most conspicuous instance of this practice exists at the College of the City of New York. The city of New York supports a system of graded schools and of high schools, and in addition to these, a college. Side by side, supported by the same funds, we have four-year high schools and one three-year high school known as the academic department of the College of the City of New York. In explanation of the advantage of this academic department, the catalogue of the college states: "This diminution of the time usually spent in preparation for college is made possible by the adoption of an academic curriculum which is especially designed as a preparation for one of the college courses." It follows naturally that such a short cut reduces the number of graduates of four-year high schools in colleges.

The following institutions maintain three-year preparatory departments which fulfil a nominal requirement of four years:

Augustana College	McPherson College
Buena Vista College	Monmouth College
College of the City of New York	Morningside College
Epworth University	Ohio Wesleyan University
Gustavus Adolphus College	Oklahoma Christian University
Highland Park College	Parsons College
State University of Kentucky	Tabor College
Leander Clark College	Texas Christian University
Lenox College	Trinity University (Texas)
Lima College	West Virginia Wesleyan University

A PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATION OF THE USE OF COLLEGE REQUIREMENTS FOR ADMISSION

In order to throw further light upon the question of articulation of college and secondary school and the actual working of the machinery of admission to college, I have asked the colleges upon the accepted list of the Carnegie Foundation to contribute to the study of this subject by a detailed statement covering the admission of students this autumn. This has been accomplished by an exhibit of the admissions

for the current year, so far as these admissions concern the passage of students from the secondary school to the college or to professional schools.

The blanks upon which this information was furnished by the kindly cooperation of the accepted colleges called for the following information:

1. The names of all new students admitted this autumn to the college;
2. The names of the secondary schools from which the students came and a statement as to whether or not the students were graduates of the schools;
3. The exact terms upon which the students were admitted.

The material thus brought together is most illuminating as to our methods of transferring students from the secondary school to the college.

THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

The professional schools of many of these institutions require either two years of college work, or college graduation, as a condition of admission. Such schools do not, therefore, undertake to articulate with the secondary school. In other colleges and universities in this list the professional schools still demand only high school preparation, "or its equivalent," for admission.

At the present time the widest variations exist in the standards of admission to professional schools even in the older communities. Thus, in New York city, Cornell University demands for admission to its Medical School three years of college work; Columbia University, two years of college study;¹ and New York University, high school preparation, or its equivalent,—the Regents' Certificate.

In Boston the candidate who desires to enter Harvard Medical School must present either a college diploma or two years of college preparation of a prescribed sort. In the same community Tufts Medical School demands for admission a high school preparation or its equivalent, the latter loosely interpreted. This difference in standard is no doubt directly connected with the recent rapid growth of the Tufts Medical School.

The institutions upon the accepted list which are still committed to no higher standard of admission than a four-year high school course or less are the following:

In Medicine: Bowdoin College, McGill University, New York University, Tufts College, University of Pittsburgh, University of Toronto, University of Vermont.

In Law: Central University of Kentucky, Cornell University, Dickinson College, Drake University, McGill University, New York University, Tulane University, University of Cincinnati, University of Pennsylvania, University of Pittsburgh, University of Toronto, Washington University, Western Reserve University, University of Michigan.

It is clear that the whole matter of the relation of the professional school to the

¹ Beginning session 1910-11.

general system of education is in an unsettled stage. It is generally conceded that the ordinary training of the high school is a doubtful preparation for these professions. Whatever may be the opinion in that matter, it is clear that when this standard is lightly enforced, the result is demoralizing alike to the professions and to professional education. Ultimately these professional schools will find their right articulation with the general system of education. As this question is to be taken up in a separate bulletin, the material which follows relates only to the admission of students from the secondary school to the college, for it is in the making of this junction that the most serious difficulties at present result, affecting alike the integrity of the college and of the secondary school.

FUNDAMENTAL PURPOSES OF ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

At the beginning of the examination of the data collected which concern both the college and the secondary school one must have a definite notion as to what a college seeks to ascertain before admitting a boy to its courses.

Primarily, the college undertakes to ascertain the boy's fitness for college work. One of two methods is usually employed in the United States for testing a boy's preparation. First, colleges require the completion of a four-year high school course and accept the diploma of graduation, or the head-master's certificate, as an evidence of fitness for college work. This method is most widely used; in some cases it implies a scrutiny of the schools themselves. Second, a limited number of the stronger universities in the eastern part of the country seek to ascertain the fitness of the boy for college by examinations. In some institutions the results of the examinations are modified by a personal conference with the candidate.

The first step in the consideration of this subject is the recognition that in the final analysis the college is dependent for its success upon the efficiency and the integrity of the secondary school. If the schools are well conducted and efficient, they will send up well prepared students; if they are demoralized or inefficient, no certificate of admission and no examination can transform those who come from them into fit college students. No college, therefore, whether under state control or upon private foundation, can afford to leave out of view the effect of the admission of its students upon the integrity of the secondary school.

In other words, the fundamental question which must be squarely met before any fair theory of admission requirements can be adopted is, Why should college opportunities be limited to those who are able to comply with stated requirements? Why should not Harvard or Columbia, for example, admit a thousand non-matriculated students to their classes? Do not such institutions fulfil only a part of their duty if they exclude from the privileges of the college an earnest body of students which asks admission, but is not able to comply with the formal requirements?

It is undoubtedly true that college opportunities may be extended to many individuals who have for one reason or another not been able to comply with the stated

requirements for admission. Particularly is this true for the man of mature years and of serious purpose. But in seeking to do this, the undergraduate college, the graduate departments, and the extension lecture courses have oftentimes been confused. It is one thing to admit such a student as a listener to graduate lectures; it is quite another thing to admit him to undergraduate college classes. To permit an appreciable proportion of a freshman class, for example, to be made up of mature men, however earnest their purpose, is generally to destroy the stimulus of work for those for whom the college is primarily designed. This principle has been for years recognized by some city school systems which do not permit men over twenty-one years of age to register in the regular high school classes. In such schools, however, separate evening classes are frequently furnished for mature students.

At the root of the matter lies the question, What is a college? A collection of callow youth does not make a college any more than a larger collection of similarly ill assorted youth makes a university.

The reason for the existence of the American college lies in the ideal of social and intellectual development for which it stands. That ideal contemplates a group of able, cultured, and devoted teachers living and working in social and intellectual communion with an alert body of youth so nearly homogeneous in age and intellectual equipment that the members of this body react the one upon the other. Such interaction creates the true college life. Its vigorous growth is impossible without such teachers; it is most difficult when the intellectual homogeneity of the student body is disregarded. The moment there is introduced into a college class a large proportion of mature students; or still worse,—and this is what more frequently happens,—the moment there is introduced a considerable proportion of ill prepared students, the difficulties of instruction are enormously increased, and the general good of the body which the college most directly seeks to serve is sacrificed to give a chance to an entirely different class.

There is no analogy between such an institution as the University of Berlin, which admits some eight thousand non-matriculated students, and the ordinary American college. The university and its methods of instruction are wholly different from those of the American college and its function is a different one. There is in Germany no institution corresponding to our college, but the *gymnasium* more nearly resembles the college than does the university, since it carries the student somewhat beyond the sophomore year of our best type of college. In these, the non-matriculated student does not exist, and the long experience of the German schools is well expressed in the decrees which have been enacted against the advancement of incompetent or ill prepared pupils on the ground that such promotion dilutes the class, which has been organized for efficiency.

It seems clear that at the present stage of our educational development it is much more necessary to emphasize this consideration in the admission of college students than to emphasize the sentiment which demands that the college give the boy a

chance when his preparation is at best doubtful. No one can study with care the colleges of the United States to-day without coming to the conclusion that they would be far more efficient if greater strictness in the admission of students were observed, and that the interest of the great body of students lies in a sharper appreciation of the demoralization which comes from the admission of ill prepared students. The question is not one for dogmatizing. No one desires to make inelastic entrance conditions. The facts are, however, that even in the strong and over-populated colleges a large part of the energy of instruction goes in the effort to carry forward to graduation students who are not ready for college, or who are intellectually unequal to the work. In no other institutions of higher learning as in our American colleges is so large an amount of teaching energy given to lifting the unready over difficulties and to dragging mediocrity to graduation. The college is justified in insisting upon compliance with its entrance requirements. The difficulty comes in setting up such requirements as may justly and fairly admit the right candidate and exclude the unfit one. In this problem no machinery can be devised which eliminates the personal equation. The most that can be hoped for is uniform, just, and reasonable treatment of the candidates for admission, with such elasticity in the machinery as wise judgment may permit, always keeping in mind the fact that the integrity of college and secondary school is a fundamental consideration.

The tables which are given at the end of this article are made up from data given out by the institutions upon the accepted list. In furnishing this information, at considerable time and trouble to the registrars of the various institutions, they have made a distinct contribution. Here for the first time is spread out in detail exactly what was done in admitting students to sixty-four American colleges in a given year. The figures are for the autumn of 1909. Canadian colleges are omitted from these statistics for the reason that the basis of admission (the junior matriculation) is a different one in Canada from that used in the United States.

DIFFERENTIATION OF TERMS

When the data furnished by the various colleges came to be compared, it was evident that there was a wide divergence in the use of the terms "conditioned" and "special" students. For example, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology reports some 480 special students, which would be an enormous proportion if the term "special student" meant a student who had not been able to offer the ordinary preparation. As a matter of fact, however, the term "special student" meant here a conditioned student as the term is ordinarily used.

The information furnished by the institutions, however, was so full that the results could be classified upon any assumed definitions as to which students were to be rated as-conditioned and which as special. Much thought has been given to the effort to frame a fair statement setting forth this distinction.

The task is not an entirely simple one. The chief difficulty arises out of the fact

that the conditioned students and the special students cannot be viewed from the same angle with relation to the secondary school. It is clear that all students admitted to college who are over twenty-one years of age do not affect the high schools. They are beyond the usual high school age. On the other hand, any student under twenty-one years of age who has not completed the high school course is still to be thought of as normally a secondary school student, and his admission to college under any classification serves to confuse the two fields of education. The first step, therefore, to a just differentiation would seem to lie in a definition of the special student group with respect to age. I therefore include for the purposes of this study under the term "special student" all those over twenty-one years of age who are not members of one of the four college classes. Such students may or may not have completed the entrance requirements. They are for one reason or another irregular students beyond high school age, admitted to a special course.

Eliminating now these special students, the conditioned students may be defined with respect to the high schools. They fall into two groups: (1) deficient students enrolled as members of regular college classes and candidates for degrees; (2) deficient students under twenty-one years of age who are admitted to college work, but are not enrolled as members of one of the four college classes. It has been a common practice to count this last class as special students, but they ought clearly to be considered conditioned students; in most cases they are seeking to become regular and candidates for degrees.

An inspection of the tabular statement which follows shows also that the first group of conditioned students here mentioned falls mainly under three types:

1. Students admitted into the freshman class upon a high school certificate, having completed less than the full four-year high school course of from 14 to 16 units. The practice of these institutions in the number of conditions which may be permitted varies. Students were admitted with as many as three, four, five, or even six units of work in arrears.

2. Students who have completed satisfactorily a four-year high school course, but who have been conditioned because they are not able to offer the specific subjects for admission. Thus, at the University of Minnesota 15 units are required of all students admitted to the department of literature and arts. No student is accepted who does not present this amount of secondary school work. The university requires, however, that four units shall be offered in English, one in algebra, and one in plane geometry. A student may be conditioned under the rules of this university in not to exceed 1.5 units of this specified work, provided that his total high school credit amounts to fully 15 units. Such a practice makes for a high standard, greater uniformity, and for the support and strength of the high schools.

3. Students who have completed in secondary schools or under private tutors all the studies required for admission, but who have failed in the entrance examinations to pass all these subjects. This group of conditioned students is confined almost ex-

clusively to the institutions which admit only by examination, such as Harvard, Columbia, Princeton, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Radcliffe, Stevens Institute, and Yale.

The students admitted to all these institutions were, therefore, grouped in three classes with reference to their secondary school preparation.

I. *Regular Students.* This group includes all students who have met the full requirements for admission, whether they pursue courses leading to degrees or take special work.

II. *Conditioned Students.* This group includes two classes of students who have not met the full requirements for admission: (1) Students enrolled as candidates for a degree. (2) Students under twenty-one years of age not candidates for a degree, taking special work.

III. *Special Students.* This group includes all students over twenty-one years of age who are not candidates for a degree and who have not met the requirements for admission.

EXPLANATION OF TABLES

In presenting the information contained in the following tables it has been my purpose not so much to offer a discussion of this material as to set forth the actual practice of the institutions themselves. The groupings have been made as follows:

Table A and Table B give the results of what are commonly called the certificate colleges and the examining colleges separately, because the results are for many reasons not comparable. First of all, the test of the work of a four-year high school by means of two examinations, as now conducted, is usually more difficult than the requirement of a certificate; secondly, where a student has been conditioned in a given subject in entering by certificate it may generally be assumed that he has not studied the subject at all. On the other hand, when he enters by examination, it may generally be assumed that he has studied the subject but has failed, perhaps by a very narrow margin, to pass the entrance examination.

Table C presents a comparison between the practice of a group of strong colleges admitting by examination and a similar group of strong colleges admitting by certificate.

Table D presents for convenience the results of admission in a group of institutions in a single state where the high school system has been highly developed and closely articulated with the college, and in which the state university and the privately endowed colleges work in harmony.

Table E presents a comparison of three groups of colleges in respect to the relative proportion of students coming from public high schools and from private academies.

**INSTITUTIONS UPON ACCEPTED LIST WHICH
ADMIT UPON CERTIFICATES**

Table A

<p align="center">INSTITUTION</p> <p align="center"><i>(State and municipal institutions are arranged under the name of their respective states or cities.)</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Stated Requirements for Admissions in Units</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number of Specified Units</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number of Students admitted to Freshman Class</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number of Graduates of High Schools or of Academies</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number admitted from High Schools without Graduating</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number admitted with Conditions</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Percentage of Conditional Students</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number Deficient in 5 or more Units</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Percentage of Students Deficient in 5 or more Units</i></p>	<p align="center"><i>Number of Special Students</i></p>
AMHERST COLLEGE.....	14	12.5	170	137	32	74	44	20	12	1
BATES COLLEGE.....	14	10.5	127	121	6	28	22	3	2	4
BELOIT COLLEGE.....	14.9	7.9	143	136	2	18	9			0
BOWDOEN COLLEGE.....	14	10.5	93	90	1	56	60	7	8	6
CARLETON COLLEGE.....	14	8	125	113	3	28	18	1	1	0
CASE SCHOOL OF APPLIED SCIENCE.....	14	10	153	134	4	41	27	1	1	0
CENTRAL UNIVERSITY OF KENTUCKY.....	14	12	36	22	13	22	78	11	31	0
UNIVERSITY OF CINCINNATI.....	15	5	243	233	10	63	26	3	1	23
CLARK UNIVERSITY.....	14	0	93	83	7	2	2			1
CLARKSON SCHOOL OF TECHNOLOGY.....	14.4	8.5	15	12	3	12	80	3	20	2
COE COLLEGE.....										
COLORADO COLLEGE.....	15	7	173	150	11	55	32	2	2	3
CORNELL UNIVERSITY.....	15	10	703	680	13	136	26	23	3	17
DARTMOUTH COLLEGE.....	14.5	9.5	294	262	27	94	32	3	1	0
DICKINSON COLLEGE.....	14	14	99	72	10	38	38			6
DRAKE UNIVERSITY.....	15	9.5	163	111	39	62	37	3	2	9
DRURY COLLEGE.....	15	9.5	65	61	4	17	26	3	5	5
FRANKLIN COLLEGE OF INDIANA.....	14	7	43	38	3	12	25	5	10	2
GREENWELL COLLEGE.....	14	12.5	174	142	27	136	78	26	15	0
HAMILTON COLLEGE.....	14	14	61	49	7	18	30	1	2	1
HOBART COLLEGE.....	14.4	9.4	31	24	4	16	52			4
JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.....	15	10	65	33	22	29	45	12	18	0
KNOX COLLEGE.....	14	6	153	115	29	74	48	1	1	4
LAWRENCE COLLEGE.....	14	4	184	165	11	41	22			1
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY.....	14.5	11.5	196	144	22	53	27	6	3	3
Leland STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY.....	15	3	353	347	2	6	2			42
MARIETTA COLLEGE.....	15	8	52	46	6	25	43	2	4	
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN.....	15	7	1117	815	31	172	15			15
MIDDLEBURY COLLEGE.....	14	9.5	97	94	2	19	20			0

**INSTITUTIONS UPON ACCEPTED LIST WHICH
ADMIT UPON CERTIFICATES (CONTINUED)**

Table A

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INSTITUTION <i>(State and municipal institutions are arranged under the name of their respective states or cities.)</i>	Stated Requirements for Admission in Units	Number of Specified Units	Number of Students admitted to Freshman Class	Number of Graduates of High Schools or of Academics	Number admitted from High Schools without Graduating	Number admitted with Conditions	Percentage of Conditioned Students	Number Deficient in 3 or more Units	Percentage of Students Deficient in 3 or more Units	Number of Special Students
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA.....	14	5	660	645	5	100	17			0
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI	15	5	490	368	73	127	26			69
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE	14.5	9.5	217	201	14	76	35	2	1	0
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY.....	15.5	14.5	149	122	16	95	64	11	7	3
OSERLIN COLLEGE.....	14	8	340	333	4	161	47	4	1	
UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.....	14.5	5.5	142	123	8	78	55	16	11	5
UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH.....	15	5	76	60	11	33	43	11	14	4
POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE OF BROOKLYN.....	14.5	8.5	55	23	23	25	45	7	13	0
RIPON COLLEGE.....	14	4	70	63	2	12	17			0
UNIVERSITY OF ROCHESTER.....	14	14	145	145	0	58	40	1	1	2
ROSE POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.....	15	6	58	31	6	12	21			2
SMITH COLLEGE.....	14.5	9.5	568			169	30	8	1	0
SWARTHMORE COLLEGE.....	14.5	5.5	137	118	12	54	39	10	7	4
TRINITY COLLEGE.....	14	5.5	59	53	0	33	56	7	12	7
TUFTS COLLEGE.....	14.5	5.5	114	96	8	33	73	23	20	4
TULANE UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.....	14.5	8.5	89	80	2	46	52	7	7	8
UNION COLLEGE.....	14.3	14.3	114	89	18	77	68	24	21	0
VASSAR COLLEGE.....	14.5	10.5	306			86	28	7	2	2
UNIVERSITY OF VERMONT.....	14.5	13.5	100	93	7	45	45	3	3	0
WARREN COLLEGE.....	14	10.5	188	113	24	30	22	18	18	3
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE.....	14.2	7.9	105	80	24	69	66	17	16	2
WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY.....	14.5	8.5	150	138	2	34	23	10	7	10
WELLESLEY COLLEGE.....	14.5	9.5	351			89	25	7	2	7
WELLS COLLEGE.....	14.5	9.5	48	39	9	25	52			
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY.....	15	8	255	245	0	66	26			1
WILLIAMS COLLEGE.....	14.5	13.5	182	99	78	94	52	12	13	4
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.....	14	4	719	694	18	6	1			52
WORCESTER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.....	14	6	171			54	32	3	2	0

INSTITUTIONS UPON THE ACCEPTED LIST WHICH ADMIT ONLY UPON EXAMINATION *Table B*

INSTITUTION	Stated Re-quirements for Admission in Units	Number of Specified Units	Number of Students admitted to Freshman Class	Number of Graduates of High Schools or Academics	Number admitted from High Schools without Graduating	Number admitted with Conditions	Percentage of Conditioned Students	Number Deficient in 3 or more Units	Percentage of Students Deficient in 3 or more Units	Number of Special Students
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY			526	287	133	309	59	91	17	35
Columbia College	14.5	9.5	185	88	61	119	64	30	16	19
School of Applied Science	14.5	9.5	203	80	66	111	55	45	22	7
Barnard College	14.5	9.5	138	119	6	79	57	16	12	9
HARVARD UNIVERSITY	16	8.5	579	487	55	285	49	81	14	50
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	14	11	346			194	56	87	25	15
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY			350			185	53	24	7	0
Candidates for A.B.	15.5		156			65	42	8	5	0
Candidates for B.S. or Litt.B.	15.5		156			94	59	16	10	0
Candidates for C.E.	12.5		38			26	72	0	0	0
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE	16	8.5	98	67	2	45	46	22	22	28
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	14	10	139	123	11	79	57	34	25	0
YALE UNIVERSITY			654			379	58	108	16	0
Yale College	14.5	10.5	298			171	57	52	17	0
Sheffield Scientific School	14.5	14.5	356			208	58	56	15	0

COMPARISON OF TWO GROUPS OF INSTITUTIONS *Table C*

	Number of freshmen admitted	Average per cent of freshmen conditioned	Average per cent of freshmen conditioned in 3 units or more	Average per cent of students graduated from high schools	Average per cent of students offering full quota of units, but conditioned in specific requirements
COLUMBIA, HARVARD, PRINCETON, RADCLIFFE, STEVENS, YALE	2842	55	16	72 ¹	7
CASE SCHOOL, CORNELL, MICHIGAN, MINNESOTA, MISSOURI, WISCONSIN	3832	17	.5	87	14

¹ Per cent based upon data from Harvard, Columbia, Radcliffe, and Stevens.

A COÖRDINATED STATE SYSTEM OF EDUCATION *Table D*

INSTITUTION	Stated Re-quirements for Admission in Units	Number of Specified Units	Number of Students admitted to Freshman Class	Number of Graduates of High Schools or Academics	Number admitted from High Schools before Graduation	Number admitted with Conditions	Percentage of Conditioned Students	Number Deficient in 3 or more Units	Percentage of Students Deficient in 3 or more Units	Number of Special Students
BELOIT COLLEGE	14.9	7.9	143	136	2	13	9	0		0
LAWRENCE COLLEGE	14	4	184	165	11	41	22	0		1
RIPON COLLEGE	14	4	70	63	2	12	17	0		0
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN	14	4	719	694	18	6	1	0		52

**STUDENTS ADMITTED TO COLLEGE
FROM PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND FROM PRIVATE SCHOOLS**

Table E

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INSTITUTION	Number of Students admitted to Freshman Class	Number admitted from Public Schools	Number admitted from Private Schools	Percentage admitted from Public Schools	Percentage admitted from Private Schools
COLLEGES ADMITTING ONLY BY EXAMINATION					
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY	526	303	119	58	23
HARVARD UNIVERSITY	579	272	270	47	47
MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	346	209	102	61	29
PRINCETON UNIVERSITY	350	70	274	20	78
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE	98	73	24	74	24
STEVENS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	139	53	87	37	63
YALE UNIVERSITY	654	202	425	31	65
CERTAIN COLLEGES ADMITTING BY CERTIFICATE					
CORNELL UNIVERSITY	708	473	230	67	33
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN	1117	740	103	66	9
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA	660	624	31	95	5
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI	480	411	50	86	10
WESTERN RESERVE UNIVERSITY	255	225	17	88	6
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN	719	664	59	92	8
WOMEN'S COLLEGES					
MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE	217	184	32	84	14
RADCLIFFE COLLEGE	98	73	24	74	24
SMITH COLLEGE	568	311	167	55	29
VASSAR COLLEGE	306	165	125	54	41
WELLESLEY COLLEGE	351	213	135	61	38
WELLS COLLEGE	48	34	14	70	29

While it is my purpose to present these tables as an exhibit of what is going on rather than to give an analysis or discussion of them, a few words concerning the general results may be permitted. The fact of great significance both in Table A and in Table B is to be found in the large percentage of freshmen admitted to many of the institutions with heavy conditions. Over half of all the students admitted to the colleges in Table B entered with conditions, and about 16 per cent of those admitted with conditions were in arrears to the amount of practically a whole year of high school work.

These facts have been known by this group of institutions and they have been a source of thoughtful questioning both on their own part and on the part of coöperating secondary schools for some time past. The facts point inevitably, as it seems to me, to one of two conclusions: either the preparation of a very large proportion of the students admitted fell below what in theory, at least, is considered a prerequisite for college admission; or the means employed for testing the preparation were inadequate and were, therefore, not accepted. Wherein does the discrepancy lie?

Without attempting to answer this question fully I venture to add that Table C throws some light upon it. This table contains the information from two groups of institutions comparable in size and in scholarship, the one admitting students only by examination, the other upon a strict and carefully guarded system of certificates. In the second of these groups only 17 per cent of the students were conditioned, while the percentage of students deficient by so much as one year of required preparation is practically negligible. The variation of these figures from those presented by the first group is, at least, significant. The number of high school graduates in the one group corresponds closely to the number in the other.

From the examination which I have made of the two groups I am of the opinion that the actual preparation presented by the 2342 students in the first group approximates closely the preparation presented by the 3832 students admitted in the second group. What has apparently happened is this: Students admitted on the examination plan undertake the examination with a reason to believe themselves qualified for it. They have in most cases the concurrence of their high school teachers in this opinion. They fail in one or more subjects for one of two reasons: first, because they have not sufficiently reviewed the subject; and secondly, because the examination served only as an imperfect test of their equipment in the subject.

It is quite true that many who attempt the examinations fail utterly to gain admission. This fact in itself, however, lends but little value to the examinations. The college might reduce such failures to a small percentage by excluding from the examinations all students who did not present reasonable evidence of their fitness to try the test.

The function of the entrance examination is, as I apprehend, first, that these tests

are a trustworthy check upon the efficiency of the high schools; secondly, that they determine, approximately at least, the fitness of candidates for college admission. The data submitted in the table above would seem to suggest that to a very great degree, at least, the examinations fail as a test of fitness, and it follows, therefore, that they fail as a trustworthy check upon the secondary school.

I do not mean to urge that the plan of admission by examination be abandoned. It has proved altogether too wholesome and vigorous an influence upon the certificate plan, but I am also strongly inclined to believe that the examinations as now administered must undergo a marked simplification if they are to serve a large and useful function. The test must become in a measure a combination of certification, inspection and examination.

One can perhaps illustrate best by a concrete example. A common requirement for college admission in Latin includes four books of Caesar, six books of Virgil, six orations of Cicero, with grammar and prose composition. This work is a prerequisite for freshman Latin, both in the colleges which admit by certificate and those which admit by examination. The college admitting on the former plan accepts the preparation of a student in Latin if it is recommended by the principal of an accredited high school. Under the examination system the college seeks to pass upon each particular part of the work. It gives one examination in Caesar, one in Virgil, one in Cicero, and another in grammar and prose composition.

Now the essential purpose of these examinations is to determine whether the boy is qualified to take the Latin of the freshman year. If no evidence of preparation is to be asked of the candidate before he attempts the examination, then the three separate papers might seem justifiable; but if such evidence were asked, then a single brief examination would serve to substantiate the evidence quite as well as three. Such a single examination ought to be easily within the average ability of the students to whom it is offered. The paper should then be marked strictly upon the agreed basis with the secondary school. Failure in such a paper ought then not to mean a condition, and it ought not to be disregarded. It ought to mean failure in the entire subject of Latin, and the boy should not be admitted. Such examinations would not only serve the college, but they would leave the secondary school free to devote itself to education rather than to cramming for examinations.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF EVADED REQUIREMENTS

I cannot too strongly urge upon the attention of those in American colleges the harm which arises from setting up standards and then disregarding them. Our nation suffers to-day in its social and political development at every step from the disregard of legal, moral, and social standards. This is due not to the lack of laws, for example, but to their multiplication. We need fewer and simpler laws which shall be really enforced. The college can contribute to this elevation of citizenship in no better way than by itself setting up simple, sensible, and just standards of admission

and of promotion and then by standing sincerely for them, not by disregarding them. We owe it to ourselves as sensible and practical men to simplify the process of transfer from secondary school to college and to make the machinery by which this is effected serve the true interests of education in a democracy.

It will be readily understood also that, although many strong institutions are not here included, the practice of the colleges and universities given in these tables is, on the whole, much above that of the hundreds of institutions in the United States bearing the name college or university. Amongst all these there is a wide difference in the degree of strictness with which the standards of admission to various parts of the average university are enforced. A number of institutions which maintain fair standards of admission to the college department offer much looser ones to the departments of law and medicine. There is in fact a strong analogy between the actual methods used in promoting stock companies and those employed in the management of many colleges. Many business corporations have a genuine issue of bonds or preferred stock which pay dividends, and another issue of common stock which is mostly water. In the colleges the preferred stock is generally in the form of an undergraduate college, while the watered stock is under various names,—schools of mines, of education, of law, of medicine, or a graduate school. A favorite form in the southern state universities is the agricultural department. All such departments have in common the quality that they admit to the classes and athletic teams candidates who under a just enforcement of standards would be excluded. Into these sheltered harbors the lame crafts are steered,—the immature youths not ready for college, and the mature candidates who have proved unequal to the tests of the secondary school. No practice could do more to implant in the mind of the American boy the conception that he is not the subject of the law, but the subject of personal favor, than the maintenance of such a back door to the college.

THE REMOVAL OF CONDITIONS

In the Third Annual Report were given the regulations of these institutions with respect to the treatment of conditioned students after their admission. It is therefore not necessary here to refer again to this matter save to call attention to the wide variation of practice in two respects, the number of conditions with which a student may enter, and the method of their removal.

In some of the colleges and universities upon this list, students may enter conditioned in only a small part of a year's work; in others students may enter conditioned in as much as two years of high school preparation assumed to be a prerequisite. Certainly such a latitude in practice is a matter of concern. The usual methods for the removal of entrance conditions are—

1. Deficiencies may be removed by crediting college work toward the entrance requirements. In this case a full college course of five recitations a week is considered equivalent to two units. Thus, if a boy is deficient two units in modern language, he

may gain credit for this work by completing satisfactorily freshman German or French. This practice is in force at Wabash, Knox, Washington University, and other institutions.

2. Conditions may be removed if a student, continuing in college the subject in which he is deficient, makes an average passing grade. Columbia and Harvard are illustrations.

3. In addition to the methods just described, preparatory departments, special classes, private tutors, and stated examinations are used to solve the problem. All of these plans tend to be perfunctory performances.

In a majority of the colleges no clear and specific information is given in the catalogues on this subject. The time, also, in which the deficiencies must be removed is commonly omitted, or stated as at Washington and Jefferson College: "Such time as the faculty will allow." In few instances does a college exact as high a standard of academic work for the removal of conditions as it does otherwise for admission. Once a student is admitted the tendency is to forgive the deficiencies, a procedure both human and humane, for the conditioned student is usually the weaker student, and if he is actually held to a strict account for his unfinished high school work in addition to the freshman schedule, complete failure is the main chance open to him.

THE PREPARATORY DEPARTMENT

It has been urged at several places in this report that the secondary school is now engaged in formulating its distinct social and educational function, and that it requires sympathetic support and considerable leeway in framing and working out its problems. To this end the influence of the college must not dominate or overshadow the experimental process.

This consideration would appear to raise a serious question as to the wisdom of maintaining preparatory schools under the immediate control of particular colleges. Of examining colleges, only the Stevens Institute of Technology maintains such an academy, the graduates of which, however, must be examined for admission like all other candidates. The stronger state universities, such as Wisconsin, Michigan, and California, do not maintain such preparatory schools. On the other hand, a number of state institutions in the west and south, and a large proportion of the other colleges in these regions, still maintain secondary schools, even in states where the high schools are well developed. Thus, the University of Illinois has a secondary school on its campus containing 478 students. About 108 students in this academy have part work in the college, and about 150 college students also carry some work in the academy. State universities maintaining high school or sub-freshman classes are:

University of Arizona
University of Arkansas

University of the State of Florida
University of Idaho

University of Illinois
 State University of Kentucky
 University of New Mexico
 State University of North Dakota
 Miami University

Ohio University
 State University of Oklahoma
 University of South Dakota
 University of Utah
 University of Wyoming

The following institutions on the accepted list maintain sub-freshman classes or academies:

Beloit College
 Central University of Kentucky
 Coe College
 Colorado College
 Dickinson College
 Drake University
 Drury College
 Grinnell College

Knox College
 Lawrence College
 Marietta College
 Oberlin College
 Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn
 Ripon College
 Stevens Institute of Technology
 Washington and Jefferson College

Some of these institutions are strong and well equipped universities or colleges. It is clear that their academies are not likely to do much for secondary education in general. They propose for themselves a very definite task, — to cover in as economical a manner as possible the entrance requirements in their most readily mastered forms. Such an effort is not calculated to stimulate sound teaching. Moreover, not infrequently these feeding departments are of very uncertain composition. Certain courses belong, as at West Virginia, to both college and preparatory school. In the same class, both college and preparatory students sit side by side, the former counting the course toward his degree, the latter toward admission.

When one goes into the group of weaker colleges, the practice is almost universal. The consequence is that in nearly every small college of the west and south is to be found a conglomerate student body made up of college students and of high school students. Usually, also, this lack of homogeneity is still further increased by a college of music, or a normal course. Such a mingling of youth of all ages and stages of preparation takes away the very thing which makes the college distinctive; that is to say, the scholarly and social association of a group of young people of varied tastes, but like intellectual standards. Such an institution cannot possibly have the true college atmosphere. There are very few institutions in this entire region to which a student may go and find himself a member of a homogeneous student body.

Concerning this feature of college reorganization in the west and south, I have had many conferences with college officers. It is easy to understand the retention of the secondary school on the ground of getting students. When a college articulates with all grades of schools its opportunities for securing students is of course greatly augmented. The proportion of high schools with which certain high standard state universities articulate is shown in the following table:

<i>University</i>	<i>Number of High Schools in State</i>	<i>Number of High Schools accepted by University</i>
California	190	122
Indiana	333	267
Michigan	578	180
Minnesota	206	202
Missouri	351	110
Wisconsin	222	129

It requires little consideration to see that a college which articulates with all the high schools and the grammar schools as well has a much larger intake than an institution which simply articulates with the standard high school. I find it difficult to see the justification for the continuance of this practice in states where the high school system is thoroughly established, such as those of the central west, like Iowa, Illinois, Michigan, and Missouri. The effect, both on the college and on the secondary school, is generally bad. Unless the school is entirely separate from the college, the mingling of academy students so changes the conditions of the college that it is no longer a college in the best sense. Nor does the argument that the college is compelled to train its own students seem to me to have weight. The way to help the secondary school system of a state is by compelling the high schools to do this work and not to have the colleges do the work for them. The college of the great western states which still keeps up an academy does it primarily to have a feeder, not to benefit secondary education.

In the south the case is not so simple. Nearly all the state universities of the west had to go through the stage in which a high school was part of their machinery. The situation as it appears to many in the south is reflected in the following statement from an official of a state university:

"It is my opinion that for years many of the southern institutions, especially the state colleges which are subject to popular control through the legislature, will be obliged to retain preparatory departments. This is necessary, it seems to me, to prevent the lowering of standards for admission, popular pressure being brought to bear to prevent the sending away of poorly prepared students. My experience has been that when the sub-collegiate work is abolished the admission requirements to the freshman class are lowered. Especially is this true of the state institutions to which the people believe they have a right to send regardless of preparation. While I think the preparatory work must be offered I believe that the mingling of sub-collegiate education in many institutions with collegiate work has resulted in injury to higher education. There has been a mingling in the same classes of collegiate and sub-collegiate students; the same instructors may teach sub-collegiate and collegiate classes, while the students become confused as to the difference between preparatory work and work of college grade.

"The present arrangement has resulted, in some institutions, in loading up the faculty with school-teachers, men who are very well fitted to give preparatory instruction, but who are not fitted to give work of higher grade. Moreover, the

first-class college professor doing preparatory work insensibly lowers his standard. Besides, the drudgery required of college professors doing preparatory work leaves him too little time or inclination to do his best in higher instruction."

Every consideration both of higher education and of secondary education would seem to point to the abandonment of secondary work by a college at the earliest possible moment. It seems to me that the Carnegie Foundation should stand firmly on this principle, and that the academy as a part of a college should be recognized in accepted institutions only as part of a passing stage in educational development, and then, only when conducted separately from the colleges themselves.

THE WEIGHTING OF COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

RECENT years have witnessed a change in the relations between the college and secondary school. The terms upon which students leaving the secondary school might be admitted to the college were for a long time prescribed and enforced by the college in its own way. From time to time the college, without surrendering its ultimate rights, has conceded the wisdom of modifications and is now tending toward a coöperative policy, marked by two important features:

(1) Freedom for the secondary school in choice of studies and in methods of teaching, so that it may make its work inspiring and fruitful to those who resort to it, the majority of whom will not enter college.

(2) Insistence by the college merely upon the attainment by the student in the secondary school of an adequate intellectual training within large limits, irrespective of the details through which it may have been procured.

The practical difficulty of effecting the transition on this basis remains to be solved. There are in use to-day among the better institutions in the United States two methods: one, admission by entrance examinations; the other, admission on certificate coupled with some form of inspection of the secondary school granting the certificate.

The first method is offered by every institution of higher training, but as a matter of fact it is used as a general means of admission only by a few, all of which are in the eastern part of the country. These institutions are of such rank and reputation as to wield great influence. The institutions which admit by examination and not by certificate are the following:

Bryn Mawr College
Columbia University
Harvard University
Haverford College

Massachusetts Institute of Technology
Princeton University
Stevens Institute of Technology
Yale University

It is to be noted that admission by examination, even in these institutions, applies primarily to undergraduates in the college and therefore affects only a part of

the students registered in the university. Thus at Harvard, out of approximately 1850 students entering last year, about 750 were admitted by examination. Many are admitted under some form of certification as special students, graduate students, and students in the professional schools who present college diplomas, a form of certificate having the widest variations.

Admission by certificate is therefore in some form well-nigh universal among American institutions of higher learning. The chief difference between the institutions using examinations and those using certificates comes in the undergraduate college, and it is here that it affects most sharply the secondary school.

Entrance by examination is the more exacting method. For example, the boy who has earned 14 units in a good secondary school will pass by certification to a college admitting in this manner. But in order to enter one of the examining colleges he must practically pass two series of examinations, each covering the work of two years, a far more difficult task than the passing of the examinations one by one in the high school. Wholly aside from the question of relative pedagogic value, it is evident that the admission by examination is the severer test.

It is clear also that actual examination tends to limit in some measure the freedom of the secondary school. The necessity for preparing a boy for the written college entrance examination imposes an additional task on the secondary school teacher, who must keep in mind the peculiar forms which these examinations tend to take. Particularly is this the case in New England, where ability to meet the college demands is a condition practically forced on the secondary schools by public opinion as it exists at present. In referring to secondary schools I have in mind only the public schools, because college students will come in increasing proportions from them. It must be granted that the written college entrance examinations necessarily restrict the pedagogic freedom of the high school teacher in dealing with the various subjects.

But limitations, in contravention of the intent of the more elastic scheme in use, are not confined to the effects of the written examination on the manner of teaching. They affect even more the choice of subjects. A study of the operation of the present system will show that the college, having offered a wide range, proceeds indirectly to penalize the student minded to take advantage of it. In the first place, the colleges differ as to the options they offer, as well as to the subjects specifically required. In the second place, nearly all colleges "protect" certain studies by giving more credit for a specific performance in them than for a really equivalent performance in the newer alternatives, which the student is apparently free to choose.

The matter of preferred studies is an interesting one, and a complete exposition of its history would throw much light on college development. The most glaring examples of preferred studies are the classics; for example, Greek. Thus, in order to enter Harvard a boy must pass by examination in "26 points," equivalent, approximately, to a little more than 16 units as defined by the Foundation. He may choose these points from a list of studies so varied that on the face of it there is the widest

election for the student and complete freedom for the secondary school in which he is trained. A careful inspection, however, will show that studies are so weighted that it is to the boy's advantage to take Greek. For example, Greek for three years in the secondary school will count 6 points, while German or French for the same time will count only 4 points. The boy who desires to enter college easily will therefore take Greek. As a matter of fact, secondary school teachers in New England frequently advise dull boys to elect Greek for this reason. Furthermore, while the 26 points required for entering Harvard can be easily earned in a classical course in four years, it is a difficult matter to earn the necessary points in a general literary and scientific course. The Harvard admission requirements are, consequently, less liberal than on their surface they appear to be; and while Harvard articulates with the classical high school so that a boy may in such a school easily prepare himself for college in four years, it does not articulate anything like so well with the high schools whose work lies outside the classics; and such schools find it difficult to prepare a boy for Harvard in four years. Similar preferences are made by Yale, Dartmouth, Brown, and other colleges.

At Yale three years of Greek are estimated as equivalent to four years of modern language. At Dartmouth three years of Greek are counted as five points, while one year of French or German is given only a credit of one point. In the entrance examination plan, however, two years of a modern language are valued at three points. At Brown University the entrance requirements which may be offered in Greek, covering three years' work, are valued at three points, while the same amount of preparation in modern language is counted at two points. Greek is thus given at Brown an advantage of 33½ per cent over modern languages.

The preference thus given to Greek is a concession to the demands of the college teachers in this subject. Similar concessions are frequently made in Latin. Practically a preferential tariff is imposed in favor of these studies in order to secure a sufficient number of students in them. The proceeding is entirely analogous to ordinary tariff legislation for the benefit of special interests.

That this policy is short-sighted seems to me clear. It is true that the number of students studying Greek and Latin has greatly diminished, but the idea that these studies can be permanently imposed upon the youth of our colleges by a preferential duty in the entrance requirements seems to me futile. There is only one way by which Greek and Latin can be preserved as college studies for any large number of American students, and that is by making these studies interesting and fruitful, touching on the one side the Greek and Roman civilization and on the other the modern. No artificial device of the sort referred to can permanently keep them in the college curricula. Greek and Latin are perfectly able to hold their own if taught in a living way.

The preferential duty on the classics has been justified by its defenders on the ground that on the whole these subjects are better taught and can be more surely counted on than any others for intellectual culture and discipline. It is quite true

that much of the work which has been proposed for Greek and Latin falls far below them in disciplinary and cultural value. For example, the modern languages as taught in the past, with no effort to learn to speak them or to know the literature of French and German, have been on the plane of elementary school work. This is, however, rapidly changing. The Modern Language Association is an active body of teachers, and is succeeding in its effort to convert the college teaching of modern languages into scholarly and serious work.

The argument for the classics which might be made on this ground is, however, almost entirely swept away by the specific demands of the various colleges.

Consider the conditions imposed upon the secondary school in the teaching of Latin. For example, Harvard and Yale require practically the same general knowledge of the candidate for admission, but at Harvard seven specified Orations of Cicero are required, while at Yale six Orations are required, five of which are specified. Both Harvard and Yale require six books of Virgil as a part of the Latin requirement. In addition to this, however, Harvard insists upon Ovid, and Yale upon either the *Bucolics* or the eighth and ninth books of the *Aeneid*. These detailed requirements put an unnecessary burden on the secondary schools. The divergences represent nothing real. All the colleges are seeking the same thing,—some knowledge of the syntax, a fair vocabulary, some actual power in using the languages, and some familiarity with a few great pieces of literature.

Furthermore, as admirably pointed out by Mr. Frederick M. DeForest in a recent number of the *Educational Review*, the most serious aspect of this prescribed diet is that it puts a premium on cramming and takes away almost all chance to make the study of Latin interesting to the secondary school boy, or to bring him into touch with the sweep of the narrative or the power of the style. A boy put through a strict diet of Caesar, Cicero and Virgil under such conditions is ready to drop Latin when he gets to college. The difference in the attitude of the student toward Latin in the high schools which undertake to fit for college and in those which teach Latin for its own sake is significant. In the latter schools students elect the study in fair proportion to other studies because they find it interesting and profitable. It is much to be hoped that the teachers of Greek and Latin, particularly in the older institutions, will take this matter in hand from the point of view of scholarly requirement and fair consideration of the secondary school. An abolition of the entrance examination tariff and uniform requirements are the first steps toward a freedom for the secondary school which shall minister in return to a renewal of the power and popularity of these stimulating college studies.

The preferred studies figure not only in the demands of the examining colleges, but in those of certificate colleges as well. Thus many state universities admit upon completion of a four-year high school course in an accredited school, but prescribe certain studies. These requirements do not, however, as a rule make any particular limitation upon the high school's freedom, since they are chosen from the standard

subjects of the secondary schools. The variations in the practice in this matter are indicated in the following table, which shows the number of prescribed studies:

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA	<i>Ten units:</i> two in English, four in modern languages, one in United States history and government, one in elementary algebra, one in plane geometry, and one in natural science.
UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS	<i>Nine and one-half units:</i> one in English composition, two in English literature, one and a half in algebra, one in plane geometry, one in history, and three in a foreign language.
INDIANA UNIVERSITY	<i>Eleven units:</i> three in English, three in mathematics, one in history, one in science, and three in a foreign language.
STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA	<i>Eight and one-half units:</i> three in English, one and a half in algebra, one in plane geometry, one in history, and two in a foreign language.
UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS	<i>Twelve and one-half units:</i> three in English, one and a half in elementary algebra, one in plane geometry, three either in Latin or in German, one in history, one in either physical geography, physics or chemistry, one in either physiology, sociology or botany, and one in a vocational subject.
UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN	<i>Nine units:</i> three in English composition and literature, three in mathematics, one in physics, and two in either Latin, French or German.
UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA	<i>Six units:</i> four in English, one in elementary algebra, and one in plane geometry.
UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI	<i>Seven units:</i> three in English, one in algebra, one in plane geometry, and two in one foreign language.
UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA	<i>Eleven units:</i> three in English, three in mathematics, two in history, and for candidates for the degree of bachelor of arts three in Latin. For candidates for the degree of bachelor of science, instead of three in Latin, four in French, German or Spanish.
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN	<i>Six units:</i> two in English, two in mathematics, and two in either Latin, French or German.

As to the second fundamental end to be secured in the secondary school, the attainment by the student of a definite status of intellectual training upon which the college may build, the college may properly speak with authority and definiteness. The college has not only the right, but the duty, to require that students trained in the secondary schools should be ready to do their college work creditably. The control of the college on that point is and ought to be supreme. As a matter of fact, however, its voice has been most uncertain at this very point. It is difficult for the secondary school to know what the college accepts as proof of a satisfactory preparation for its work. Admission, either by examination or by certificate, would seem definite enough but for the numerous exceptions which are made in the case of conditioned students or of special students.

In referring to the entrance of conditioned students, I am not arguing that this is entirely to be avoided, or even that it may not be justifiable in the case of particular institutions. In our present educational status, the subject is one upon which it is

not safe to dogmatize. I am only presenting the point of view of the secondary school which finds it difficult to grasp from the practical action of the colleges in admitting students any clearly defined intellectual test to which their students are to submit. It is doubtful whether exceptions ought to be made without actual knowledge of the secondary schools from which the students come. This matter is being followed up in the older colleges, and an increasing effort is being made to get into touch with the secondary school and to learn its estimate of the boy before he is accepted on probation in the college. My purpose is at this time to suggest to the colleges the need to keep in mind always the point of view of the secondary school and to appreciate how the college policy in the admission of students reacts upon the secondary school.

EDUCATIONAL CRITICISM AND EDUCATIONAL CONSTRUCTION

In developing the educational service which the Carnegie Foundation may render, the trustees have sought to take advantage of its detached position. It is difficult for a college or university, conscious of undoubted opportunities for educational service on the one hand, and of its own expansive possibilities on the other, to study itself also as one factor in a general situation. The personal point of view is to some extent necessarily characteristic of each college or university. Natural as this is, it leaves the educational estimate incomplete. An institution has unquestionably to study its local problem; but that is not all that it has to do. For at the same time that it is satisfying local needs, it is the representative and agent of national ideals and aspirations. Its wider responsibility is, however, not so readily and insistently present to consciousness as the local stress. For that reason a distinct function remains to an agency that endeavors to survey the field from the general and inclusive standpoint.

The activity of such an agency takes two forms: in the first place, the collection of facts; in the second, a serious consideration of the data thus collected from the standpoint of general educational efficiency. These two aspects are not separable. The ultimate purpose is formative and constructive. The mere collection of data might be in itself more or less interesting; an exhibition of them might be either stimulating or discouraging. But true utility depends on their employment in the effort to work out and bring about a more effective organization than they themselves portray. It is precisely this ultimate constructive purpose that determines what facts shall be collected. It would be wasteful to undertake to gather all the facts bearing on existent educational conditions. Some of them are of no general importance. To decide what is important one must have a guiding purpose from the start; and that purpose will constantly suggest new and pertinent points, to understand which one must continually recur to the objective situation. The Foundation cannot be an intelligent collecting agency without an explicit consciousness of the

critical and constructive purpose for which its collected data are the raw material; and study of its collected data from the standpoint in question constantly suggests fresh lines of investigation. The facts are then fundamental; the criticism which they sustain is, taken by itself, of only negative value; the actual end that makes the entire process valuable is the constructive suggestion which is its outcome. Of disinterested agencies, concerned solely to procure, disseminate, and interpret information, it may be said, as Mr. Graham Wallas has lately said of the statisticians of the English Board of Trade, that it is precisely the strength of their position that "they have the right and duty of making their voice heard, without the necessity of making their will prevail."

Of the various agencies that are now endeavoring to get at the facts and with them in one way or another to strengthen, to coördinate, and to differentiate our educational institutions, the Carnegie Foundation is only one. Such agencies are, of course, themselves open to frank criticism. It is important that they should not escape it. They are capable of harm as well as of good. Large sums of money may be unwisely used; excessive centralization may bring evils quite as serious as excessive dispersion.

There is, in my judgment, however, no present reason to be apprehensive on either score. The funds of the Carnegie Foundation represent only about two per cent of the collected endowments of the colleges and universities in the United States. There is but slight probability that they will ever be important enough to be a source of even potential danger. The only financial advantage which a college can receive from the Foundation is in the form of a retiring allowance system for its professors. An institution need not depend on the Foundation in this matter; it can meet the expense involved out of its own income, whenever it is ready to admit that it is as important to provide pensions as to increase laboratories and lecture rooms. Haverford College has recently established a retiring allowance system by an endowment collected for that purpose. Other institutions will follow this example.

Something has been said of the standardizing value of such an agency. The word is not a happy one. There is a vast difference between standardizing and standard making. As President Hadley has well pointed out, it is the chief function of a university to furnish standards. The Carnegie Foundation has not undertaken to furnish standards to the colleges—that would be standardizing. What it has done is to make clear the standards of the colleges themselves and to throw the light of publicity on the deviations from the standards they themselves have set up. In the present educational confusion the danger that some subtle standardizing process will take the place of the colleges as standard makers and bring about a level of mediocrity is an extremely remote danger. The college has nothing to fear either from friendly scrutiny or hostile criticism. The only enemies who can really injure it are those of its own household,—pretense, insincerity, superficiality. When a college sets forth the fundamental standards—honesty, simplicity, sincerity, thoroughness—no outside agency can touch it.

There is equally little danger of undue centralization. The Foundation has no direct coercive power. Its influence depends primarily upon rational persuasion. Its board of trustees is composed of men representing every section of the country. There is no possibility that such a body will sanction policies that tend to dangerous centralization. The trustees perceive that heretofore educational forces have been almost wholly centrifugal and individualistic. Each state possesses to-day a large number of separate educational organizations, such as one or more universities, many colleges, professional schools, and secondary schools. These several institutions are not clearly related either locally or as parts of a general scheme. They have been set up with little reference to each other. There is as yet little appreciation of the loss that such a situation entails,—a time loss, because time is lost where articulation is poor; an ethical loss, because the effort to maintain an excessive number of institutions on a basis that is nominal rather than real has demoralized educational conditions; a financial loss, because it costs more to maintain several inferior institutions than one effective one. It is to be noted, too, that these losses fall in every case on the student body and the youth who would like to be students. The loss of time in secondary school and college brings the boy late to his trade or his professional school, the financial loss comes out of his pocket, or that of his parents, the ethical loss falls heaviest on him.

There is, then, a distinct need at this juncture for an agency interested in organization, in coördination, in differentiation of parts, and in the definition of true standards. The coming decade may well correspond in college administration to the epoch through which our railroads have just passed. Thirty years ago railroads were extended into the west with little relation to the needs of the population or to the requirements of railroad building in older communities. They were pioneers and they served their purpose. The last ten years, however, have been a period not of railway extension, but of railway betterment: curves have been taken out, grades cut down, road-beds made safe, and the pioneer railroads brought up to the standards of settled communities.

The last twenty years have been a period of enormous college expansion; the next twenty years are to be one of college betterment and coördination.

It is not necessary at this stage to forecast absolutely the lines which such reorganization may take. But the details of the situation with which it must deal cannot but be highly suggestive as to the general direction which it must take. Here, our educational institutions overlap; there, they form parallel competing lines. It is obvious from the mere fact of their separate existence that they are meant to serve distinct ends; but if so, then educational efficiency requires that they be sharply differentiated. It is equally clear that they are together designed to serve a general or common purpose; if so, civic efficiency requires that they be coördinated. Educationally it is immaterial whether the various institutions in question are endowed or tax-supported. Their purpose is common, whatever their means of support. They

must therefore take position with intelligent regard to one another and to their common aim.

If this way of looking at the matter is sound, our first concern must be to clear up distinctions to the end that natural and significant junctions may be established. At this moment the critical points of transition seem to be the following: elementary school—trade school; secondary school—college; college—professional school; college—university. At no one of these points is articulation now sure and frictionless. If the analogy to railroad reorganization is valid, effective educational coordination will result in a large saving of time and energy. Only a few railroads can be trunk lines. The great majority must be branches articulating with the trunk lines. But they can all use the same gauge.

The more or less chaotic condition disclosed by study from the point of view here presented will quickly reshape itself under the operation of such a constructive conception if once accepted. It would appear that the system of education in any state would ultimately resolve itself into one university (perhaps in the larger and more populous states, several), a small number of strong colleges working in harmony with it, a large number of secondary schools underlying these, and below all, the elementary schools. With this main educational trunk, trade schools and professional schools will articulate at definite points. Toward some such coherent, rational, and interrelated organization we seem at this moment fortunately to be tending. If, now, this be true, it is evident that the thousand institutions in the United States calling themselves colleges or universities cannot all find places as such in it. It is incredible, for instance, that fifty-two colleges shall continue in the educational system of Ohio, or six Methodist colleges in that of Iowa, or that great states will go on supporting colleges in competition one with another. Undoubtedly, many institutions now calling themselves universities ought frankly to face the situation and become colleges, and many calling themselves colleges ought to become academies. Some of these so-called universities have the means and the situation to be most useful as colleges, but they can never justify their existence as universities and they will demoralize the education of their respective states so long as they attempt it. It is the clear duty of the president and trustees of such an institution to place it both by name and by actual administration in the class to which it belongs and in which it could serve the cause of education efficiently. There is, perhaps, no other situation which presents to a conscientious college president such difficulties as the effort to reduce the pretensions of his institution or to give it a more modest name. He must contend with the swollen pride of the community inflated in large measure by the college's own action, with the indiscriminating loyalty of sentimental alumni, with the opposition of those who sit in secure places. Nevertheless, this way lie academic honor, institutional honesty, and educational progress for those who have the courage and the tact and the patience to enter upon the task.

It is, however, a condition precedent to such endeavor that we form the habit of

calling things by their right names. The industrial reorganizer begins with a critical scrutiny of accounts, previous operations and market demands. He tries to see everything in a cold, rational light. The same sort of clear seeing and clear thinking is urgently required in education. No one is really to be blamed for the origin of the existing confusion. It has come about naturally as a spontaneous expression of expansive impulse. When defects are pointed out, it is not then with the purpose of throwing responsibility on particular institutions. But, on the other hand, these same defects can be proved only by dealing definitely and specifically with places, institutions and practices, and improvements can be effectively suggested only in concrete instances. It is earnestly desired that the course of the Foundation in this matter be not misunderstood. The difficulties of the position are keenly realized by those charged with its administration. On the one hand, we must be candidly outspoken; on the other, our disinterested concern must be clear in every utterance. Public confidence, won by accurate, temperate, and impartial study and discussion, is the chief asset that the Foundation may hope to accumulate.

HENRY S. PRITCHETT.

October 18, 1909.

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**PART VI
DE MORTUIS**

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AMOS NOYES CURRIER

AMOS NOYES CURRIER was born on a farm near Canaan, New Hampshire, on October 18, 1832. He was educated at Dartmouth College, from which he was graduated as a bachelor of arts in the class of 1856, having previously taught in district schools, and in 1854 been principal of the academy at Danbury, New Hampshire.

Soon after his graduation Mr. Currier went to Iowa upon a visit to relatives, and while there became professor of Latin and Greek in the Central University of Iowa at Pella. This position he held from 1857 to 1861, receiving from Dartmouth College the degree of master of arts in 1859. In 1861 Professor Currier enlisted as a private in Company C, Eighth Iowa Volunteer Infantry, and was captured with his regiment by General Beauregard in the "Hornets' Nest" during the battle of Shiloh. The regiment was transported as prisoners of war to Mobile, where after a detention of some months, it was released on parole. Upon being formally exchanged, Mr. Currier received a commission and served under it in the army until the close of the war.

At the cessation of hostilities in 1865 he returned to his chair at the Central University of Iowa, whence in 1867 he was called to be professor of Latin and Greek at the State University of Iowa. This office he occupied for forty years, serving during the last twenty years, 1887 to 1907, also as dean of the college of liberal arts. During the year 1898-99 he was in addition acting president of the university.

Professor Currier served as president of the Iowa State Teachers' Association; he was for many years a director of the First National Bank, Iowa City; he received in 1898 the degree of doctor of laws from Des Moines College; and in 1905 the alumni of the university presented as a mark of affection and respect an oil painting of him to the university. The commencement of the university in 1907 was given the title of the "Currier Fortieth."

On account of his distinguished usefulness to education in Iowa, attested by the governor of the state and many well known graduates of the university throughout the west, the Carnegie Foundation, on March 28, 1907, granted to Dean Currier a retiring allowance. He died in Iowa City on May 16, 1909.

JEROME SCHNEIDER

JEROME SCHNEIDER was born at Basle, Switzerland, on September 30, 1824, and received his preliminary education in the public schools and the *gymnasium* of his native city. After graduating from the latter in 1839 he spent three years in the local *paedagogium*, and in 1842 was matriculated at the University of Basle. Here he continued for eight years, with the exception of one year spent at the University of

Berlin, studying ancient and modern languages and teaching in the *gymnasium*. In 1850 he received the degree of doctor of philosophy from the University of Basle.

In 1854 Dr. Schneider came to America and located in Boston. For two years he taught modern languages in private schools, during part of the year 1855-56 acting as instructor in modern languages and Latin at Amherst College. At the beginning of the year 1856-57 he was appointed instructor in modern languages and the classics at Tufts College, then recently opened. In 1860 he was made professor of the Greek language and literature, continuing to teach French and German also until 1869.

Upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Tufts College the Carnegie Foundation, on July 26, 1906, granted to Professor Schneider a retiring allowance. He thereupon retired from active teaching, in which he had been engaged at Tufts College for fifty years. Professor Schneider died in Somerville, Massachusetts, on May 20, 1909.

ALLEN DANFORTH

ALLEN DANFORTH was born in Plymouth, Massachusetts, on January 5, 1846, being a lineal descendant of Samuel Danforth, Harvard, 1643. He received his preliminary education in the public schools of Plymouth, and entered Harvard College at the age of sixteen, graduating with honors with the class of 1866. In 1869 he received the degree of master of arts. The year following his graduation he went to Helena, Montana, where he remained until 1872, during a part of that time being superintendent of the mining and milling operations near Helena of the National Mining and Exploration Company of New York. In 1874 he was appointed bursar of Harvard University.

The office of bursar Mr. Danforth held until 1888, when he was appointed deputy treasurer of Harvard. In 1898 he retired from this office to become the first comptroller of Harvard University. This office he held until his resignation in 1906, having thus completed thirty-two years in administrative duties at the university. He was considered an authority upon the gifts held by the corporation, the history of the university property, and the general financial transactions of the university during the two hundred and seventy-five years of its existence.

On June 7, 1906, upon the nomination of the Board of Fellows of Harvard University, the Carnegie Foundation granted a retiring allowance to Mr. Danforth. He died in Boston on July 19, 1909.

JOHN HANNO DEILER

JOHN HANNO DEILER was born in 1849 at Altötting in the kingdom of Bavaria, and was educated in the schools of his native town and at the Royal College of Munich. After his graduation in 1868 he taught in various Bavarian schools under

a government appointment; finally teaching in the Model School at Munich. In 1871 Mr. Deiler removed to New Orleans to take charge of a German school in that city, and in 1879 he was appointed professor of German in the University of Louisiana, now the Tulane University. Professor Deiler organized several musical societies in New Orleans and elsewhere, and was President of the National Union, North American Saengerbund. He was the author of a history of German settlers in Louisiana. On account of this work and his services to the German people in the United States, the German Emperor, in December, 1898, conferred upon him the knighthood of the Prussian Order of the Crown.

On May 2, 1907, upon the nomination of the board of trustees of the Tulane University of Louisiana, the Carnegie Foundation granted to Professor Deiler a retiring allowance. He died at Covington, Louisiana, on July 20, 1909.

EDWARD THOMAS BOAG

EDWARD THOMAS BOAG was born in 1842 at Charleston, South Carolina. He was sent north to be educated, and after being prepared in a private school in New York, he entered the collegiate course of the Free Academy, now the College of the City of New York. Upon the breaking out of the civil war he left his studies, and returning to his home in Charleston, enlisted in the Confederate army. He served in the army throughout the war, taking part in most of the campaigns of "Stonewall" Jackson, and being several times promoted. In the second battle of Fredericksburg he was wounded so severely that he was left on the field among the dead; a woman performing acts of charity among the soldiers discovered by accident that he was still living. He recovered, but with the permanent loss of one eye.

After the war Mr. Boag went to England, and in 1866 returned to New York and went into business. In 1868 he entered the service of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and a few years later was appointed registrar. In 1891, when the college was made an integral part of Columbia University, he was given the title of assistant registrar of the university.

Upon the nomination of the board of trustees of Columbia University the Carnegie Foundation, on March 4, 1909, granted to Mr. Boag a retiring allowance, and on July 1, 1909, he retired from the service of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, in which he had been engaged for forty-one years. Mr. Boag was drowned in Raquette Lake in the Adirondack Mountains on August 17, 1909.

HENRY CADWALADER CHAPMAN

HENRY CADWALADER CHAPMAN was born at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, on August 17, 1845. He was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, from which he received the degree of bachelor of arts in 1863, the degree of master

of arts in 1864, and the degree of doctor of medicine in 1867. After studying for three years in Europe he began the practice of medicine in Philadelphia in 1870. In the same year he became resident physician at the Pennsylvania Hospital, and lecturer on anatomy and physiology in the University of Pennsylvania. In 1879 he was elected professor of the institutes of medicine and medical jurisprudence at the Jefferson Medical College and held this chair until his retirement in 1909. From 1876 to 1881 he was physician to the coroner of Philadelphia, from 1892 to 1904 chairman of the board of curators of the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Sciences, and from 1880 to 1904 was the director of the Philadelphia Zoological Society. Dr. Chapman was the author of a number of medical treatises and a frequent contributor to medical and scientific periodicals. Among his better known works were *Evolution of Life*, *Treatise on Human Physiology*, and *Medical Jurisprudence and Toxicology*. He received the degree of doctor of science from the University of Pennsylvania.

On December 12, 1908, on account of his long and generous service to medical education, the Carnegie Foundation granted a retiring allowance to Dr. Chapman. He died at Bar Harbor, Maine, on September 8, 1909.

CHARLES AMI LADOR

CHARLES AMI LADOR was born at St. Croix, Switzerland, on June 17, 1842. He received his education in the schools of St. Croix, the Lausanne Academie, the Sorbonne, and the College de France. Following the completion of his studies he served for one year as professor of the French language and literature at Robert College, Constantinople, and one year as professor in the Institut de Belle Rive, Vevey, Switzerland.

In 1869 Professor Lador came to the United States, and upon his arrival registered as a student in the Union Theological Seminary, New York. After two years spent there as a student, he became in 1872 instructor in modern languages at Wiliston Seminary, Easthampton, Massachusetts, where he remained until 1880. He then returned to the seminary, and in 1881 he was licensed to preach and was ordained by the Presbytery of New York. He returned to France and was assigned by the Society of Geneva to the charge of a congregation in Provence.

In 1884 Professor Lador was sent by the society as its representative in the United States, and after serving in that capacity for two years he accepted in 1886 the position of adjunct professor of the French language and literature at the Polytechnic Institute of Brooklyn. A few years later he was appointed professor and served in this office until, on June 7, 1907, the Carnegie Foundation, upon the nomination of the board of trustees of the Polytechnic Institute, granted to him a retiring allowance. Professor Lador died at Woodhaven, Long Island, on September 25, 1909.

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REPORT OF THE TREASURER

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REPORT OF THE TREASURER

To the Vice-Chairman and Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

IN accordance with the provisions of Article IX of the By-laws, the vice-chairman of the board of trustees designated Harvey S. Chase & Company certified public accountants, to audit the accounts of the Foundation for the last fiscal year. On October 6 the books of the treasurer were accordingly turned over to this firm, whose report follows.

October 26, 1909.

To the Vice-Chairman of the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching:

DEAR SIR: IN accordance with your instructions to us, under date of September 8, 1909, we have audited the books and accounts of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching for the year ending September 30, 1909, and have to report as follows:

During the course of our audit we made a thorough check of the books of account, satisfying ourselves that the income from the investments had been duly accounted for, and that the expenditures had been duly authorized and vouched. We checked the payments of retiring allowances in detail against the authority for such payments as recorded in the retiring allowances ledger from the minutes of the trustees.

The securities representing the investments were produced to us and checked by number against the records of securities in the investments ledger.

The cash in bank was verified with the bank balance and the cash on hand by actual count.

With the approval of your officers we have made several changes in the form of the annual financial statement. At the request of your president, we have presented a statement of income and expenditure in very much greater detail than has been the practice heretofore. This is in accordance with the policy of publicity recommended by the Foundation for educational institutions throughout the country. Considered with the statement of cash received and disbursed, and the record of securities purchased, it gives a full account of the financial transactions of the year.

We have employed the practice of the Banking and Insurance Departments of the State of New York in accounting for investment securities. This practice is a requirement of law for savings banks and insurance companies in New York, and in their case is important for the proper valuation of assets and an accurate accounting for income. As the investments of the Foundation, aside from its ori-

ginal endowment, are all accumulations of income and as such are available for use at the discretion of the trustees, they need not be treated to the same refinement of accounting that might properly be demanded under some other circumstances. The rules laid down by the New York State Departments are, however, such a definitive expression of good accounting practice that the Foundation, it seemed to us, would do well to adopt them, especially in view of its recommendations for a standard accounting practice for the educational institutions with which it comes in contact. In most of these institutions such a practice would be highly desirable. There is a concise explanation of the method followed in this report, and illustrated on Schedule B, in the pamphlet of the Banking Department, from which we quote as follows:

“Amortization is the gradual charging off and extinction of the premium or crediting and extinction of the discount involved in the purchase of securities. It is to be distinguished from the practice of charging off the entire premium, or crediting the entire discount, immediately at the time of purchase; or the practice of carrying the security at the purchase price until maturity and then charging off the premium or crediting the discount, because the practice of making one charge or credit either at purchase or maturity makes the loss or gain, as the case may be, unduly large either at the beginning or the end of the life of the bond, and the bond is therefore carried at an unduly low or an unduly high value; whereas, amortization, by spreading this loss or gain over the entire period during which the bond is held, results in giving to the purchaser the exact periodic income, upon the basis of which the bond was purchased. . . .

“Market values, when applied as a measure of solvency to fixed term securities owned by savings institutions, are unfair and unreal.

“Securities purchased either above or below par do not actually earn the nominal rate of interest. If a premium has been paid, a sufficient sum should periodically be taken from the interest income to amount at maturity to the premium, thereby distributing the burden of loss on the investment throughout the term. Or, in the case of a purchase below par, the discount should be added to the purchase price, by periodic divisions, so that the benefit of the purchase shall be distributed throughout the term.

“Both of these defects are cured by amortization.”

Two methods of amortization are in practical use and both are permitted under New York law. The scientific method, so-called, may be described briefly as one that keeps the amortized, or investment, value of a bond always at “the price at which it would sell at the date as of which the amortization is made, if sold to net the same interest as that at which it was purchased.”

“The simple or pro-rata method of amortization is based on the simple process of charging off the premiums or crediting the discount in equal amounts at (annual or) semi-annual periods, during the life of the bond. The amount to be charged off at each (annual or) semi-annual period is ascertained by dividing the

premium or discount by the number of (annual or) semi-annual periods through which the bond will have to run to reach maturity.”

As the second method can be easily calculated and checked by any careful clerk, it seems better adapted to general use and has been followed in this report. It requires considerable work to construct a table of amortization, but it is important to note in this connection that, the work once done correctly, stands during the full term of the security, and occasions no further work aside from the periodic entry of amortization with the corresponding charge or credit to income. The amortization rate for each investment should be entered on the ledger page as a permanent record of the annual entry applying to that security.

Very respectfully,

HARVEY S. CHASE & COMPANY.

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SUMMARY OF CASH RECEIPTS AND PAYMENTS
FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

Cash Balance October 1, 1908	\$ 19,410.39
Total Cash Receipts, per cash book	<u>538,454.91</u>
	\$557,865.30
Total Cash Payments, per cash book	<u>509,228.17</u>
Cash Balance September 30, 1909	\$48,637.13

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INCOME AND EXPENDITURE ACCOUNT
FOR THE YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

Income

From Securities in the Endowment Fund as per details on <i>Schedule A</i>	\$500,000.00
From other Investments as per details on <i>Schedule A</i>	86,897.61
Accumulation of Bond Discount to establish "Investment Value" of Miscellaneous Securities according to rules of New York State Bank- ing Department for Investments, net as per details on <i>Schedule B</i>	5,482.48
Interest on Bank Balances to September 30, 1909	2,524.91
<i>Total Income for the Year</i>	\$544,855.00

Expenditure

RETIRING ALLOWANCES:

To Professors, Officers, and Widows in Ac- cepted Institutions	\$231,017.57	
To Professors, Officers, and Widows not in Accepted Institutions	112,853.33	\$343,870.90

ADMINISTRATION:

Salaries

President @ \$15,000 from Jan. 1, 1909	\$14,250.00
Treasurer	3,000.00
Secretary	3,000.00
Assistant Secretary, Washington, D.C.	50.00
Bookkeeper	1,500.00
Stenographer	1,080.00
Stenographer @ \$1080 per annum	405.00
Filing Clerk @ \$900 per annum	685.00
Total Salaries	\$23,970.00

**Traveling Expenses of Trustees, Officers
and Assistants**

Traveling Expenses of Trustees, Officers and Assistants	4,678.60	
Rent	3,999.98	
Stationery and Office Supplies	1,456.96	
Sundries	899.06	
Postage	429.23	
Printing minutes	134.85	
Depreciation of Office Furniture and Fixtures	538.17	\$36,106.85
<i>Carried forward</i>		\$544,855.00

REPORT OF THE TREASURER

	<i>Brought forward</i>	\$379,977.75	\$544,355.00
<i>www.lib609.com.cn</i>			
PUBLICATION:			
Printing Third Annual Report	\$5,115.25		
Salary of Assistant	1,950.00		
Postage on Annual Report	605.00		
Reprints	258.00		
Extra clerk hire, mailing report	55.70	<u>\$7,983.95</u>	
INVESTIGATION OF PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS:			
Salary of Assistant @ \$3000	\$2,500.00		
Traveling Expenses	1,381.52		
Rent of Office	900.00		
Stenographer @ \$1080 per annum	675.00		
Professional Fees	250.00		
Stationery and Office Supplies	64.04		
Sundries	163.77		
Postage	54.80	<u>\$5,989.13</u>	
EXPERT REPORTS:			
Report on Teaching of Physics	\$1,860.00		
Accountants; Audit and Special Reports	670.00		
Actuarial Reports	389.50		
Miscellaneous Reports	151.75		
Traveling Expenses	433.67	<u>\$3,504.92</u>	
<i>Total Expenditure for the Year ending September 30, 1909</i>			<u>\$397,455.75</u>
Accumulation of Surplus Income for the Year ending September 30, 1909			\$146,899.25

www.lib BALANCE SHEET, SEPTEMBER 30, 1909

Assets

INVESTMENTS (<i>Schedule A</i>)		\$10,879,161.78
INTEREST ACCRUED ON INVESTMENTS (<i>Schedule A</i>)		176,342.52
CASH IN BANK AND ON HAND		48,637.18
OFFICE FURNITURE AND FIXTURES, Cost	\$5,381.76	
Less Reserve for Depreciation	1,415.87	3,965.89
<i>Total Assets</i>		<u>\$11,108,107.32</u>

Liabilities

ENDOWMENT FUND		\$10,000,000.00
SURPLUS INCOME:		
Accumulation to September 30, 1908	\$961,208.07	
Accumulation for year ending September 30, 1909	146,899.25	
Total Accumulations		<u>1,108,107.32</u>
<i>Total Funds and Accumulations</i>		<u>\$11,108,107.32</u>

Schedule B

AMORTIZATION OF BONDS (Continued)					FUTURE AMORTIZATION AND ACCUMULATION ¹				
Purchase Price	Premium	Discount	Premium Amortized to Sept. 30, 1909	Discount Accumulated to Sept. 30, 1909	Investment Value Sept. 30, 1909	Number of Full Years	Annual Rate	Amount	Amount for Final Period to Maturity
\$ 3,350,000.00					\$ 3,350,000.00				
3,350,000.00					3,350,000.00				
3,300,000.00					3,300,000.00				
94,505.00		\$ 1,405.00		\$ 32.50	94,537.50	48	\$ 30.00	\$ 1,440.00	\$ 92.50
95,981.25	\$ 981.25		\$.89		95,980.36	36	3.26	280.36	
18,400.00		1,600.00		977.95	18,677.95	15	83.94	1,259.10	62.95
97,150.00		2,850.00		432.69	97,582.69	15	153.48	2,302.20	115.11
94,500.00	4,500.00		121.12		94,378.88	77	56.32	4,336.64	42.24
50,875.00	875.00		26.46		50,848.54	19	44.08	837.52	11.02
50,562.50	562.50		41.37		50,521.13	39	13.11	511.29	9.24
49,912.50		5,087.50		131.35	50,043.85	46	107.16	4,929.36	26.79
49,125.00		875.00		124.76	49,249.76	18	39.66	713.88	36.36
59,700.00		300.00		266.67	59,966.67				33.33
64,711.52		5,288.48		249.92	65,561.44	11	377.75	4,155.25	283.31
30,000.00					30,000.00				
4,681.80		318.20		11.66	4,693.46	36	8.36	300.96	5.58
56,400.00		3,600.00		465.50	56,865.50	90	185.43	3,108.60	25.90
29,178.98		5,221.02		477.66	29,656.64	90	264.96	5,229.20	44.16
9,812.50		187.50		168.37	9,970.87				29.13
39,450.00		550.00		463.25	39,903.25				26.75
49,125.00		875.00		116.91	49,241.91	21	35.96	740.46	17.63
18,963.34		1,016.66		66.41	19,049.75	45	21.00	945.00	5.25
26,376.66		3,623.34		110.59	26,487.25	45	77.63	3,493.35	19.40
29,879.93		5,120.07		511.99	30,391.92	17	259.61	4,413.37	124.71
49,477.22		8,522.78		724.85	50,202.07	17	439.32	7,468.44	329.49
6,271.98		728.02		49.79	6,321.77	17	38.21	649.57	28.66
34,689.00		1,311.00		11.56	34,700.56	98	13.17	1,280.66	8.78
44,750.00		5,250.00		278.06	45,028.06	44	111.52	4,906.88	65.06
\$10,873,799.18	\$6,218.75	\$54,419.57	\$189.84	\$5,552.44	\$10,879,161.78			\$41,450.47	\$1,387.75

(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Column 2, Purchase Price			\$10,873,799.18		Column 7, Investment Value			\$10,879,161.78	
plus Column 6, Accumulations			5,552.44		plus Column 10, Future Accumulations			41,450.47	
			\$10,879,351.62		plus Column 11, and Amortization			1,387.75	
minus Column 5, Amortizations			189.84		= Column 1, Par Value			\$10,922,000.00	
= Column 7, Investment Value			\$10,879,161.78						

Amortised premiums are printed in italics, and the accumulated discounts in roman figures.

REPORT OF THE TREASURER

The treasurer has submitted at each meeting of the executive committee statements of receipts and expenditures which were printed and sent to all trustees. These statements, together with the report of the auditing firm just quoted, give a complete account of the financial operations of the Foundation for the period covered by this report.

THOMAS MORRISON CARNEGIE.

October 18, 1909.

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APPENDIX

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RULES FOR THE ADMISSION OF INSTITUTIONS AND FOR THE GRANTING OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES

INTRODUCTION

THE aim of the founder in the creation of this Foundation is clearly expressed in the Act of Incorporation passed by the Congress of the United States, and approved by the President, March 10, 1906.

This aim is there stated to be the establishment of an agency to provide retiring allowances for teachers in the colleges, universities, and technical schools of the three English-speaking countries of North America, and to serve the cause of higher education by advancing and dignifying the profession of the teacher in these higher institutions of learning.

The trustees realized early in their administration of the endowment the necessity to make the retiring allowance system rest upon the basis of a recognition earned by the teacher in his profession rather than upon the basis of a charity; to have the retiring allowance come to the teacher under definite rules as a right, not as a favor.

To accomplish this purpose it was necessary to deal primarily with institutions themselves in order to ascertain their standards of admission and of work, their financial resources, their relation to secondary education, and their plan of government. After satisfactory information is obtained in these matters, a college may be admitted to what has been termed the accepted list, and professors in it may then avail themselves of retiring allowances under the rules of the Foundation. Such allowances are paid through the institutions to the professors. At the present time sixty-seven colleges have been admitted to the accepted list under the terms stated in the following paragraphs.

ADMISSION OF INSTITUTIONS TO THE ACCEPTED LIST

Institutions of higher learning, including colleges, universities, and technical schools, whose educational standard, plan of government, and endowment conform to the standards of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, may be recognized as entitled to share in the retiring allowance system of the Foundation. Blanks for the presentation of this information will be furnished by the Foundation.

Applications on behalf of institutions must be made by the board in which the government of the institution is vested. In the case of tax-supported institutions the applications must be accompanied by the approval of the legislature, and of the governor of the state or province in which the institution is situated. The trustees of the Foundation reserve the right to decline the application of any such institution if it is subject to a political control or interference which, in the opinion of the trustees of the Foundation, impairs its educational efficiency.

The trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching reserve the right to discontinue the privilege of any institution to participate in the system of retiring allowances of the Foundation whenever, in the judgment of the trustees, an institution ceases to conform to the regulations maintained by the trustees. Such withdrawal, shall not, however, result in the discontinuance of retiring allowances already granted.

The requirements in regard to educational standard, plan of government, and endowment are given below.

In order to be admitted to the retiring allowance system of the Foundation, the essential work of an institution must be that of higher education and of such a character that graduation from a four-year high school course, or equivalent training, is a reasonable prerequisite therefor.

The term college is used to designate, in the United States, Canada, and Newfoundland, institutions varying so widely in requirements for admission, standards of instruction and facilities for work, that for the purposes of this Foundation some arbitrary definition of that term is necessary. The following definition will be employed.

“An institution to be ranked as a college must have at least six (6) professors giving their entire time to college or university work, a course of four full years in liberal arts and sciences, and should require for admission not less than the usual four years of academic or high school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the pre-academic or grammar school studies.”

A technical school to be eligible must have entrance and graduation requirements equivalent to those of the college, and must offer courses in pure and applied science of equivalent grade.

Institutions which maintain a course, or courses, for which high school graduation, or equivalent training, is not required for admission, must present to the Foundation the number of students and the names of the teachers in such course or courses; also, separately, the number of students of whom high school training, or the equivalent, was required for admission, and the names of the teachers engaged exclusively in instructing the latter class of students.

No institution will be accepted which is so organized that stockholders may participate in its benefits.

Institutions of higher learning will be recognized as eligible to the benefits of the Foundation, so far as denominational control is involved, under the following conditions:

1. Colleges, universities, and technical schools of requisite academic grade, not owned or controlled by a religious organization, whose acts of incorporation or charters specifically provide that no denominational test shall be applied in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers, nor in the admission of students.

2. In the case of colleges, universities, and technical schools, not owned or con-

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 trolled by a religious organization, in which no specific statement concerning denominational tests is made in the charters or acts of incorporation, the trustees of such institutions shall be asked to certify by a resolution to the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching that, notwithstanding the lack of specific prohibition in the charter, "no denominational test will be imposed in the choice of trustees, officers, or teachers, nor in the admission of students, nor will denominational tenets or doctrines be taught to the students." Upon the passage of such resolution by the governing bodies of such institutions, they may be recognized as entitled to the benefits of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching so far as considerations of sectarian control are concerned.

An institution not supported by taxation, in order to meet the requirements in regard to endowment, shall have a productive endowment of not less than two hundred thousand dollars over and above any indebtedness of the institution.

A tax-supported institution shall be in receipt of an annual income of not less than one hundred thousand dollars.

RULES FOR THE GRANTING OF RETIRING ALLOWANCES

The rules for the granting of retiring allowances as amended and adopted by the trustees at their annual meeting on November 17, 1909, are stated in the following paragraphs. They present in comparison with the rules formerly in use two important changes: first, an extension of the application of Rule 1, regulating retirement on the basis of age so as to recognize service in the grade of instructor; second, a restriction of the retiring allowance conferred after twenty-five years of service under Rule 2 to teachers who have incurred physical disability unfitting them for further service as teachers. The reasons for these changes have arisen out of the experience gained in the administration of the trust for the past four years and are set forth in the Fourth Annual Report of the President of the Foundation.

The rules as thus amended provide a retiring allowance for a teacher on two distinct grounds: (1) To a teacher of specified service on reaching the age of sixty-five; (2) To a teacher after twenty-five years of service in case of physical disability.

Although these are the general rules governing retirement, the trustees are nevertheless willing to grant a retiring allowance after the years of service set forth in Rule 1 to the rare professor whose proved ability for research promises a fruitful contribution to the advancement of knowledge if he were able to devote his entire time to study or research; and the trustees may also grant a retiring allowance after the years of service set forth in Rule 1 to the executive head of an institution who has displayed distinguished ability as a teacher and educational administrator.

Rule 1. Any person sixty-five years of age who has had not less than fifteen years of service as a professor, or not less than twenty-five years of service as instructor¹ or

¹ An instructor is held to be a college or university teacher to whom is assigned independent teaching or responsibility for the conduct of laboratory work or of classes under the direction or supervision of a professor or head of

as instructor and professor, and who is at the time a professor or an instructor in an accepted institution, shall be entitled to an annual retiring allowance computed as follows:

(a) For an active pay of twelve hundred dollars or less, an allowance of one thousand dollars, provided no retiring allowance shall exceed ninety per cent of the active pay.

(b) For an active pay greater than twelve hundred dollars the retiring allowance shall equal one thousand dollars, increased by fifty dollars for each one hundred dollars of active pay in excess of twelve hundred dollars.

(c) No retiring allowance shall exceed four thousand dollars.

Computed by the formula: $R = \frac{A}{2} + 400$, where R = annual retiring allowance and A = active pay.

Rule 2. Any person who has had twenty-five years of service as a professor or thirty years of service as professor and instructor, and who is at the time either a professor or an instructor in an accepted institution, shall, in the case of disability unfitting him for the work of a teacher as proved by medical examination, be entitled to a retiring allowance computed as follows:

(a) For an active pay of twelve hundred dollars or less, a retiring allowance of eight hundred dollars, provided that no retiring allowance shall exceed eighty per cent of the active pay.

(b) For an active pay greater than twelve hundred dollars, the retiring allowance shall equal eight hundred dollars, increased by forty dollars for each one hundred dollars in excess of twelve hundred dollars.

(c) For each additional year of service above twenty-five for a professor, or above thirty for an instructor, the retiring allowance shall be increased by one per cent of the active pay.

(d) No retiring allowance shall exceed four thousand dollars.

Computed by the formula: $R = \frac{A}{100}(b + 15) + 320$, where R = retiring allowance, A = active pay, and b = number of years of service.

Rule 3. A widow who has been for ten years the wife of a teacher, who at the time of his death was in receipt of a retiring allowance, or who at the time of his death was eligible to a retiring allowance, or who had had twenty-five years of service as a professor, or thirty years of service as an instructor and professor, shall receive as a pension one-half of the retiring allowance to which her husband was entitled under Rule 1, or would have been entitled under Rule 2 in case of disability.

Rule 4. In the preceding rules, years of leave of absence are to be counted as years

a department. The term is not intended to include demonstrators, mechanics, laboratory helpers, or other assistants who are not charged with the responsibility for the conduct of college classes, nor is it held to include those who give any considerable part of their time to gainful occupations other than college teaching. The Foundation reserves the right to decide in all doubtful cases what constitutes services as an instructor.

of service, but not exceeding one year in seven. Librarians, registrars, recorders, and administrative officers of long tenure whose salaries may be classed with those of professors and assistant professors are considered eligible to the benefits of a retiring allowance.

Rule 5. Teachers in the professional departments of universities whose principal work is outside the profession of teaching are not included.

Rule 6. The benefits of the Foundation shall not be available to those whose active service ceased before April 16, 1905, the date of Mr. Carnegie's original letter to the trustees.

Rule 7. In counting years of service toward a retiring allowance it is not necessary that the entire service shall have been given in institutions upon the accepted list of the Foundation, but only years of service in an institution of higher education will be accepted as an equivalent.

Rule 8. In no case shall any allowance be paid to a teacher who continues to give the whole or a part of his time to the work of teaching as a member of the instructing staff of any institution.

Rule 9. The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching retains the power to alter these rules in such manner as experience may indicate as desirable for the benefit of the whole body of teachers.

RECOGNITION OF INDIVIDUAL PROFESSORS IN INSTITUTIONS NOT ON THE ACCEPTED LIST

The trustees realize that there are able and devoted teachers rendering admirable service to education in institutions which, owing to low entrance requirements, or for other reasons, are considered below the academic grade requisite to entitle them to a place on the accepted list of institutions. Individual professors of extraordinary merit or service in such institutions may be granted retiring allowances, but in such cases the trustees will deal with the individual professor. Such allowances cannot in any instance be granted to professors in institutions deemed to be under denominational control. Inasmuch as the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching is a gift to higher education, service in a high school or academy will not entitle a teacher to a retiring allowance from this Foundation.

These rules were approved at the annual meeting of the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching held on November 17, 1909.

(Attest) CHARLES F. THWING,
Secretary of the Board of Trustees.

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